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## TERMINOLOGY: THE DEPARTMENT OF SPEECH<sup>1</sup>

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OF ALL those who have taught the noble art of speaking well the most influential has been Quintilian. This teacher never tired of warning against the dangers of speaking on a word or a name; but was ever urging the practice of speaking to a thesis or proposition. This practice became a principle of great virtue among the Greek rhetoricians. The classic warning comes first to mind when one looks at the words, "Terminology: Department" assigned by the programs committee. With this assignment doubly pertinent is the ancient counsel, for our present task is to find the most appropriate word. Let us, then, follow the classic advice and make out of our assignment a proposition. And the first proposition we shall speak to is:—the most desirable name for our work is department of speech.

There is no proposition today, great or small on any educational policy which is not colored by the great crises in the lives of nations, and by the new epoch into which our own national life is entering. If Prussia, putting aside the highest side of education, sacrificing the highest development of character, if Prussia, had not organized the university curricula on the system of material efficiency the world would not now be in the throes of this terrible war. If German professors had done their full

<sup>1</sup>This paper was read at the annual meeting of the National Association of Academic Teachers of Public Speaking."

duty; if they had served Truth with half the loyalty they served dynastic success, they would not now be damned by all good men and true; they would not now be apostates of Truth, and outcasts of civilization. No excellency of German scholarship can ever atone for the terrible prostitution of that scholarship in its efforts to justify barbarism and condone military atrocities. First let it be said, without any qualifications, or mental reservations whatsoever we will win the war. Prussia and all her works must be crushed and beaten to death, or there will be no educational policy to talk about. Now we are ready to go into a discussion of any educational policy. Educational policies and the educated classes are in the deepest sense in this war. In England Lord Ramsay says: "It will do us no good to win the Great War unless we reform ourselves and remodel our education."\*

In our own country educational changes and educational policies are the commonest topic of daily conversation. In all this talk the question of curriculum adjustments is receiving much attention. Any changes in a departmentally organized curricula offers to the teachers of speaking a notable opportunity. As many teachers of speech are now rising to the opportunity, and are doing loyal service as "4 Minute Men"; so there opens another opportunity to rise to a larger loyalty and out of the curriculum adjustments now going on, to secure for their subject a better recognition, and a more appropriate place in the colleges of our country. All that we have to say about a title for our department is said under the thought of present day curriculum adjustment.

We have now a proposition to wit: the most desirable name for our work is department of speech. We are all looking at this proposition from the same point of view: namely curriculum adjustments. We are, then, all ready together to go over the top into the no-man's land of discussion.

Let us lay aside all paraphernalia we shall not need. We will not use any ideas about the Terminology of the subject in general, nor the name of fundamentals. We are not now interested in technical names for research; nor are we concerned with the question of restating rhetoric in the terms of psychology. We will give no attention to that very pressing problem of the names

\*Lord Ramsay: The making of a University—1915.

of courses, and their standardization. None of the problems of terminology in the high school are here to be considered. Nor do we wish to be drawn into the debate about the absolutivity of names in science and the relativity of names in art. Nothing can draw us away from the original purpose of discussing the best title for our department under the light of present curriculum changes.

The most cursory examination of college catalogues reveals a variety of names. In one group of colleges the title is Public Speaking. Its variants are: Public Speaking and Debating; Public Speaking and Reading; Public Speaking and English; Public Speaking and Argumentation; Public Speaking and Oratory. What think you is meant by that phrase Public Speaking and Oratory? In another group of colleges the name of our department is English. Fortunately the variants are more numerous than the standard. The chief variants are: Oral English; Vocal English; Spoken English; Special English; English and Debating; English and Public Speaking; English and Rhetoric; English and Literature. In a small group there are a number of colleges which hold to that good old word Oratory. It, too, has many variants: Oratory and Expression; Oratory and Composition; Oratory and Rhetoric; Oratory and Vocal Culture. Two colleges still retain that much abused word Elocution. Other names in use are: Department of Speech; Department of Oral and Written Composition; Department of the Science and Art of Expression. Such a multitude of names gives our work the unique distinction of having the largest number of titles. No other department in the curriculum is known or unknown, under so many different names. So many titles lead the layman to enquire; "Why so many names for the same thing?" While our academic brothers question: "Is the same thing being taught under so many different titles?" The members of our own order pass by the multitude of names with: "So many names may indicate different points of view, different pedagogy, or different emphasis." But the matter is not to be passed over thus lightly. A multitude of names does not suggest clarity and certainty in the mind of the layman; while in the mind of the college men the very multitude is taken as evidence of the unsatisfactory educational values of the work, or proofs of the inadequate scholarship

of the teacher. Worst of all those who are now studying without prejudice, and without malice, the college curricula are not given the right ideas of our work. The present status, then, is far from satisfactory, and more uniformity in the title of the department is greatly to be desired.

By way of digression it is not quite inappropriate to introduce at this point an astounding bit of rebuttal. The other day I told a friend of the review of catalogues which revealed a multitude of names for this department. His reply was that the work was not academically essential; and the departments were not *bona fide*. The teachers in the so-called departments had no voice in the college government; did not receive a share of the budget; and have very little to say in the administration of their own affairs. If such conditions exist, and there is evidence to believe such conditions are not unknown, then in the words of Koko, "Here's a pretty howdy do!" Here a subject which from the days of the *Universitas Studii Generalis*, which was the mother of modern colleges, down to the present, has held a well recognized place in every plan of liberal education, yet the subject today is regarded by some curriculum makers as non-essential. The work in speech is thrown into a so-called department which is really a catch-all, or an advertising scheme. At best this department is used to establish a balance between the principle, the college is a place of mental discipline, and the principle of the college is a school of general experience. If there are men in our faculties who entertain this attitude toward our work, and there are; if there are among us teachers with such academic ideals, and there are, then it is incumbent upon us to set up reputable scholastic standards, to find a reputable name for our department, and all together to demand and to command the academic respectability of both name and subject.

In returning to the data, collected from the current college catalogues, the names in each group may now be considered. Note first the English group. English is not a desirable name. The anomaly of courses in Anglo-Saxon, Celtic, aesthetics, composition, and literature under the name English has long been apparent. Plans for the reorganization and renaming of the English work in the college curriculum are slowly maturing. Teachers of literature, language, and composition find the word

English not altogether satisfactory; while the teachers of speech find the word not only unsatisfactory but undesirable. To make the word cover the work in speech only adds to the confusion; as for denoting the department "English" is not a name, it is camouflage.

None of the variants such as Oral English, Spoken English, Special English are, in the college curriculum, desirable titles. In a liberal arts college the work in speaking plays too great a part to be isolated or stored away as an annex to any other department. Speech is the one department which by its very nature can best connect all the other departments, and help do away with the evils of a departmental curriculum. Speech has not only its own field of knowledge but it is also the ready servant in all the other fields of knowledge. Our special contribution in the curriculum is correlation. But correlation postulates equalization. You cannot correlate inequalities. You must, therefore, have separate organization. Without a separate department effective work and healthy growth will never be realized. The department of speech must be organized independently, upon its own foundation, with its own name. But it must never be forgotten, and it cannot be too often repeated; separation alone spells death. Only by separation *and correlation* will the department of speech come to its own in the college curriculum, and at the same time help the curriculum to come to its own in making its full contribution to the liberal education of the students. Any title including the word English is undesirable because the presence of that word vitiates the two cardinal principles of separation and correlation which must be freely operative in a departmentally organized curriculum.

Another objection, under the viewpoint of this paper, to the word English is its lack of meaning. There is no working consensus of opinion about its denotation. With other titles such as history, sociology, psychology, the members of the college family may entertain different ideas about the exact meaning of the words; but the whole faculty have a pretty general agreement about the work done under the titles. There is no such agreement about the work done under the English names. Take for example the name with a great vogue, Oral English. With some Oral English means an oral parallel of the worth of the English

department; with others it means a method; or a bit of procedure; with still others it is restricted to elementary public speaking. In a college what does Oral English mean? or the more pertinent question for the guardians of the college curriculum, what is being done under that name? The word oral, both in its derivation and denotation is not quite desirable. In the catalogues of other colleges, than liberal arts, the word oral has a certain vogue, and reputable usage. There is, too, in the schools a well organized and successful oral movement which has very little if anything to do with speech or speaking.

But above and beyond all these arguments is the final objection that the problems of speech are no more English than they are French, German, or Russian. There is a large field of problems in speech investigation, as there is a substantial body of practices in speech cultivation which are underneath or common in all languages. As our country is now rounding into the new era we are becoming more internationally minded, more and more a nation of linguists. There is a growing demand for better instruction in the modern languages. In this new day the teachers of speech ought to make some contribution. Phonetical studies are as important as expression. Interpreting a French poem, or giving a Greek play quite as properly concerns the department of speech as interpreting an English poem or giving an English play. Some time ago in a certain college correlation was made with the department of Greek. In this work the study of the Greek drama was made from the point of view of presentation, and the tragedy of *Antigone* was finally presented in Greek. Such a course could hardly be called English. The word English in the title of this department is not only an inaccuracy but a hindrance to close correlation with other departments in the college.

The terms Oratory and Expression, Speech arts, and Elocution may be passed over and rejected because of their connotations. With the phrase Oratory and Rhetoric, or Rhetoric and Oratory the problem is not so simple. Both the words are old and worthy. Their champions love to point out the honored past, the wide-spread usage in many languages, the well earned place in all good dictionaries. Rhetoric as the science and Oratory as the art of expression at one time was in reputable usage in our colleges. The name is still preserved in many of the older foun-

dations to bring the phrase, with its full meaning into present usage takes time and energy which should be spent upon the work of the day. Such an effort is like Mark Twain's experience with the whistle on the Mississippi steamboat. The boat had to be stopped to blow the whistle. Any phrase which requires explanation or justification violates the principle of economy.

The only other phrase which has received serious consideration as a title of our department is public speaking. Public Speaking seems to be a popular designation of the work rather than an official name of the department. It has a greater vernacular than documentary usage. It has not yet won its way into the Standard dictionaries. It is a phrase of protest rather than of denotation. It came in as a protest against a tendency which was turning the mind toward the past. College men did not desire courses in the history of oratory; they demanded instruction in the practical art. But more especially the phrase came in as a protest against a certain style and subject-matter. In this sense of a protest it still has popular currency. The phrase public speaking is growing into a rich and worthy significance as the name for instruction in speech making; but as a title for the department this phrase is too narrow, indefinite, and easily perverted.

The title public speaking hinders rather than helps towards a right recognition of the department in the curriculum. The hindrance comes out of an attitude of mind of the teacher of speech towards his subject, and out of the attitude of mind of the other members of the faculty towards the subject of speech. Both of these statements need amplification. The teachers of speech must more and more take an intellectual attitude toward their work. If the work of the spoken word is to secure a permanent place within the precincts of higher education that work must become more and more an intellectual pursuit. By intellectual pursuit is not meant merely mental discipline. The work in speaking can be made the most difficult course in the curriculum. It is true public speaking is the best training in public thinking. It is readily admitted that the work is peculiarly fitted to develop the powers of a student. One can freely grant that there is no other subject in the curriculum which lends itself more readily to the task of enlightening the spirit, evoking the will, and

sharpening the faculties; withal of lifting the student to that high plane on which he can function with his greatest efficiency. All of these are desirable and proper, but there is more in looking at the subject as an intellectual pursuit. There are other things for which higher institutions of learning are maintained and these are the cultivation of the life intellectual, and the acquisition of knowledge. Some worthy contribution must be made to that storehouse of knowledge which the world is unwilling to forget, and for the perpetuation of which higher institutions of learning are established and maintained. The collection and organization of knowledge is an intellectual pursuit par excellence. The department of speech in a college need not, indeed should not, concern itself with scholarship in the sense of developing and applying creative ability. This is the special function of the graduation school. But the department of speech should be so organized and so named as to let pupils while in college know that there is a higher field of specialized study, and that there are opportunities for creative ability along the lines of science, as well as along the lines of artistic performance. The development of the life intellectual is a concomitant desideratum. The more one grows in the intellectual life the more one learns to deduce from the body of his organized knowledge that which is good for the whole, and that which is permanent, and not take something good for a particular few, or spend the time in advertising a method, or exploiting a man. This is what it means to look at the subject as an intellectual pursuit. This is the attitude of mind the teachers must take or be debarred from that circle in which men follow the intellectual life. If the members of this department have nothing to teach but procedure, dexterity, conventions, and nothing to talk about in their association meetings but methods then their days are numbered, and their influence is measured. The first criterion of an intellectual attitude is the impersonal. It is of no great importance what this or that person feels or thinks, nor the way that individual works. Only the genius of the whole will ever save from the folly of the few. There is overmuch talk about methods. The subject of speech is concerned so much with the application of knowledge that there is a tendency to over-emphasize that side of the work. And just because the phrase public speaking emphasizes the doing rather than

the knowing, therefore some other phrase should be found which would equalize the stress and give some emphasis to the subject as an intellectual pursuit.

The state of mind found in the other members of the faculty is the other serious obstacle which hinders the subject from coming to its right place in the curriculum. In the minds of those who control the curricula the phrase public speaking means the practice of an art. To a man looking for graduate work in an eastern university the head of the graduate school replied that there was no work offered because speaking was merely a bit of technique. In that man's mind, and in the mind of every other man in that graduate school public speaking meant the practice of effective speech making. To another man working on the phonology of Burke's speech the instructor gave warning against the use of the term public speaking for that phrase meant the art of delivery, or declamation. Another eminent scholar in talking about a vocation advised against teaching public speaking for he reasoned that there were no opportunities in that field for scholastic endeavor. At best public speaking was the teaching of dexterity, at worst the teaching of conventions. Illustrations ad infinitum could be compiled to show that in the mind of all the leading scholars and college presidents the meaning of the phrase public speaking is fixed. That attitude of mind is a serious barrier against the subject ever coming to its proper place in the curriculum. Of course it must never be thought that any word is an open sesame to a place of service and power. Work is the only way. And work, well done, under any name must win. The point is that any work done under the name public speaking is going to be done under great difficulty. It is easier to change the name, than the mind of some of these professors; it is wiser to do good work under some other name than public speaking.

The best title, under which to work is Department of Speech. The word speech is old, short, simple, stable, well-known, accurate, common, learned, definite, extensive, and academically acceptable for it connotes the art and denotes the science, or just as well it denotes the art, and connotes the science. The term public speaking should not be dropped. It could be kept as a sub-title, or better it should be retained for just what it is, the name of a course in the department of speech—a course devoted

to the art of speaking in public. Small and simple as is the word speech, yet it is the only word large enough to cover the present activities, and those which are daily demanding a larger share of attention. The rising interest in the improvement of American speech, the work in speech culture, and speech defects, the work so splendidly begun by Dr. Muckey, the demands for instruction in private talk and conversation are just as legitimately the activities of this department as the work in debating or any kind of speaking in public, and either branch is as important as the work in the drama or interpretation of the printed page. All the work of the department may be grouped under three sub-heads: the voice, the speaking, and the interpretation. Perhaps other words as speech culture, public speaking, and dramatic art may be used, but the opinion is quite general that these are the three lines of work. The only word large enough to cover the three fields is speech.

There is no better way of realizing what are the present activities and coming opportunities than to study a collection of the phrases in which are made different statements of the purpose of this department. Note some of these phrases and think of their meaning. "The purpose of this department is to give a greater recognition to the spoken word in education; to give more emphasis to the peculiar, academic discipline of the speech sciences." "To realize more fully the educational values in the study of the speech arts." What a body of meaning back of such a declaration as this: "In the past the emphasis has been over-much upon the artistic, upon performance; to-day the stress should be shifted to the scientific to scholarship." Not half so radical but just as revolutionary is the statement: "As the goal of science is explanation—one of the purposes of this study is to discover knowledge of speech, and as the goal of art is action, the other purpose, is to study the art of speaking well." Some of these statements are interesting as revealing the tones of a radical. Less interesting perhaps, but more potent are those statements which echo the voice of the philosopher, or reflect larger tendencies in education. "To find out knowledge of speech, to develop the ability to think in terms of social life and social culture, to train men and women to play their part in a democracy." No one can review these statements of purposes without

finding a clearly marked movement to stress educational values, to emphasize social relationship, and to build up a genuine scholarship by work in the field of research. This is the program of the Department of Speech.

Our people must go out from local interests to national, and international ones. In so doing changes and adjustments must be made. Not the least of these will be the adjustments of our college curricula. Now is the time for teachers of speech to reorganize and to rename their department.

## TRAINING IN THE TECHNIQUE OF SPEECH IN THE HIGH SCHOOL<sup>1</sup>

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OUR ambition is to make over the speech of an indifferent nation, for the most part cheerfully content to be crude. The dream of the reformer is sweet, but his way is hard. He must first win the confidence, then the sympathy, and finally the coöperation of those whom he hopes to reform.

To reform the speech of grown people is practically impossible. To reform the speech of adolescents is possible. To assure success in reforming the speech of any people we should begin with the babies learning to talk, and provide them with the constant companionship of persons who habitually speak correctly, and with intelligent instruction in technique. Since we are not teachers either of adults or of little children, our problem is limited to what may be done with adolescents, and the psychological conditions characteristic of adolescence are our first consideration. To say to a boy or girl of fifteen, "You must study the technique of speech and learn to speak more acceptably," does not make it certain that the youth will, upon leaving school, continue to *practise* what has been taught. We know that most of the *facts* taught in other subjects are forgotten because they are not used. If every teacher were to demand that her pupils stand to recite, that they stand quietly on both feet, with knees straight, heads up, and hands hanging at the sides; if every teacher were to demand that her pupils fill their lungs before they begin to talk, and that they keep their chests high by keeping their lungs filled, we should be far on the way towards securing habitually intelligible speech from the average pupil. It has not been considered practicable for teachers of other subjects to make even these simple demands. It becomes, then, the duty of the special teacher of the technique of speech so to present the subject that the pupil will voluntarily use, in all his classes and every-

<sup>1</sup>Read before the National Convention of Academic Teachers of Public Speaking, Auditorium Hotel, Chicago, December 28, 1917.

where he talks, the speech which he has been taught is the most generally acceptable because it is the most effective.

While our ambition to reform the speech of the average American is a worthy one, our legitimate expectations of success must fall far short of this ambition. If we can arouse in our pupils a sympathy with our cause strong enough to make them stand up straight when they talk, to stand quietly without fingering their clothes, trinkets, etc., to control their breathing, to open their mouths, to pronounce their consonants, to think to the point, to have convictions and the courage of their convictions, and to express effectively, because for an honest purpose, what they think and feel—if we can arouse in our pupils an interest powerful enough to make them do these things habitually, we shall have done all that we may legitimately hope to do.

To win the pupil's willing coöperation we may appeal to his appreciation of the practical as it applies to himself—to his business sense and desire to succeed, to his pride of personal accomplishment, to his ambition for social poise. The subjects most interesting to every youth, as well as to every adult, are himself and his personal problems. To consider this matter of learning to speak effectively as one of the personal problems to be solved by each pupil for his own advancement in life, dignifies the subject in his eyes beyond any possible conception of the thing he has known as elocution. It becomes to him then what it really is—a problem of practical self-expression.

Now the first handicap to successful self-expression is self-consciousness. Physiologists tell us that in general the action of the glands is temporarily suspended by intense emotion. It is equally true that normal self-expression is inhibited by self-consciousness, which is largely responsible for irregular and superficial breathing, for thick tongues, for stiff lips and rigid jaws. Once the peculiar fear which has caused the self-consciousness is identified and its source discovered, both the fear and its consequent inhibitions disappear.

The pupil should be taught that his fear can be conquered by right thinking. The teacher who would help his pupil to conquer fear and free his spirit for rational self-expression must renounce forever the luxury of sarcasm and give up the habit of *all* criticism which is not followed by constructive suggestion. This

means that no teacher whose talent is purely academic can hope to succeed as a teacher of the technique of speech with high school pupils. The successful teacher must be really sympathetic, earnest, and sincere in his efforts to free the pupil from the imaginary monster which paralyzes his diaphragm, weakens his knees, clutches at his throat, and sets his jaws when he faces a harmless, good natured audience, which is more eager to hear than to criticize, more interested in the anticipated message than in the speaker's spiritual struggle.

The average teacher who fails to get satisfactory results usually fails because he does not appreciate the prime importance of this spiritual problem. Pupils of high school age, naturally sensitive, extremely susceptible to suggestion, many of them dangerously introspective, and repressed in their emotional expression almost to the point of explosion, must not be laughed at, or pitied, or have too much sympathy spent upon them. Their vagaries must be picked to pieces with absolute honesty. The intelligent teacher will then find a way to direct their thoughts into wholesome channels, without offending those to whom their emotional and spiritual uncertainties are the most appalling realities of these unstable years. Until the pupil is free from the fear of ridicule, until he *dares* to express himself simply, freely, and honestly, and until he learns that his efforts to express anything other than himself are certain to prove futile, it is useless to give him technical information or drills, because up to this time these have no significance to him.

The amount of technique of speech that can be given profitably to high school pupils depends not upon how much the teacher knows nor upon how much the pupil needs, but upon how much the pupil can be induced to want and to use. Where a teacher is equipped to give any technique at all it is usually given too soon, and the student drops the practise of the principles taught when he finishes the subject and is awarded his credit. The technique given should be so definitely related in the student's mind to clearly defined results to be achieved that he will continue to apply it whenever he speaks, whether in school or out.

It must be understood that there is no short cut to the acquisition of a pleasing and effective technique of speech. The determined efforts of both teachers and pupils to find such a short cut

are the greatest stumbling blocks in the path of real progress in national speech improvement. What is worth while is never easy to attain. Speech habits are formed early in childhood, largely by unconscious imitation. To change these habits requires persistent self-discipline which will be followed only by those who are determined to acquire correct and effective speech.

What is the correct and effective speech which we would have the average American acquire? A state representative of The National Association for Speech Improvement recently stated in a public meeting that it was not at all improbable that the speech of the middle western states would ultimately become the accepted standard for the United States. Heaven forbid that the mumbling, grunting, half-articulate speech which we are forced to endure on all sides should become the accepted standard of speech for Americans of this or any other day. The standard which we, as a national organization, should adopt, should not be that of any section of this or of any other English speaking country. Persistent efforts have been made for many years to convince us that the speech of the cultivated Englishman should be adopted as the American standard. We are urged to *imitate* the speech of a limited class of English speaking people whose speech habits are largely the result of generations of unconscious imitation in childhood. The class conditions that make this possible in England do not exist in this country and we hope they never will, for they do not accord with the ideals upon which our republic was founded and which we are fighting to uphold. All these efforts to graft upon American speech the speech standards of cultivated Englishmen are doomed to failure, because of the absence in this country of permanent social classes. Let us first establish habits of precision in speech, and in so far as these habits result in speech comparable to that of the cultivated Englishman we shall produce a real American standard without slavishly imitating the product of conditions which are likely never to prevail in this country.

Our high schools at present have to do primarily with the teaching of *intelligible* English—a subject so elementary as to involve no possible discussion of sectional differences. We must teach our pupils to open their mouths when they talk, to speak distinctly, to speak loud enough to be understood. These elemen-

tary practises we *do not* teach effectively. Until we do teach these things and get satisfactory results, it is folly to talk of teaching the further refinements of cultivated speech. Until the average American stops mumbling his words and has learned to speak intelligibly as a rule and not as the exception, it is farcical for us as teachers in the public schools to attempt to teach the masses the artistic oral interpretation of classic literature.

With self-consciousness overcome it is not hard to interest the pupil in a more technical analysis of his remaining defects of speech, and this leads easily to a discussion of the ways and means of cultivating the further niceties of speech. To further stimulate the pupil's interest in the correction of his defects and to arouse in him a still greater desire to overcome them, I have prepared a printed list of the commonest defects and a specific remedy for each, the defects and their remedies arranged in parallel columns. I have each pupil prepare, to the best of his ability and without help from me, a three minute selection, either prose or verse, of his own choosing. He is allowed from two to three weeks for this work. The selection must be one that he likes and that he thinks will interest the class. A powerful motive for effective work is now awakened for the first time. The pupil prepares this selection not only because he expects to enjoy reading it, but principally because he hopes that it will interest the class. This shifting of his attention from himself to his audience is a potent factor in containing the cure of his self-consciousness.

While the pupil is reading this three minute selection I rapidly check upon the printed list his most conspicuous faults and the remedies which he should apply. This record is then handed to him for use at home in taking the indicated exercises. When conditions permit each pupil is assigned a consultation period, sometimes more than one period, at which time I hear his report of progress and give him further individual instruction. The list of remedies includes all of the technique previously demonstrated to the class as a whole. This diagnosis of the pupil's faults serves to impress him with their gravity and at the same time to fire him with the hope of their cure.

It is impracticable to formulate a set exercises in technique which shall be infallible in all cases. There are certain common faults for which there are numerous specific remedies,

all equally good in the hands of an efficient teacher. The remedy to be applied depends upon the cause of the defect. Actual causes are not always easy to discover. The teacher of the technique of speech in high schools has to do with the normal, the sub-normal, and the abnormal, and as a rule there is no adequate provision for separating these into groups. The teacher of the technique of speech must have a sharp eye, a quick, sympathetic perception of mental and emotional states, and an intuitive understanding of temperamental peculiarities. She must have enough knowledge of psychology to make her judgment sound and her advice safe. She must have a sensitive, carefully trained ear, and a thorough-going knowledge of exercises that have been used successfully by other teachers. She should be ingenious in inventing specific remedies for individual cases as they appear. Less than any other subject in the curriculum, can this subject profitably be standardized. Information can be standardized; demonstrations can be made before classes, but only very general exercises in technique can be given to classes with satisfactory results. Pupils must be taught individually how to breathe, how to control their breath, and how to place their tones properly, etc.

For general relaxation, for deep breathing, and for stiff jaws, there is no better exercise than the self-induced yawn. I tell my pupils to yawn forty times a day, yawning at convenient times only, and dividing the yawns into groups of five.

Another breathing exercise should disclose to the pupil the proper use of diaphragm and waist muscles in deep breathing. Breath control cannot be acquired with superficial breathing. This exercise is taken lying flat upon the floor, all tight clothing removed, arms stretched over the head, so that the ribs and chest are raised and rigid. In this position the pupil should recite in a whisper, so that each word can be heard distinctly, some familiar rhyme or jingle, noticing the muscles used in breathing, and paying especial attention to the crisp enunciation of the consonants. He should then stand with his arms raised over his head, feet together, and repeat the exercise. Finally he should drop his arms to his sides and repeat the exercise, seeing to it that the diaphragm and waist muscles are used in breathing as before.

Pupils must be taught individually how to breathe, how to control the breath, and how to place the tones. They must be taught how to open their mouths, so that the tones may escape and so that the words shall not be mumbled. They must be taught to vocalize the resonant consonants—b, d, g, l, m, n, and z, and to pronounce initial and final consonants. To accomplish this I use certain exercises which cannot be adequately described here and which must be demonstrated to be understood.

To teach pupils to open their mouths when they speak I use a modification of Bell's Vowel Table. E as in eel, i as in ill, a as in ale, and e as in ell are grouped together with directions to pronounce the vowel with smiling mouth and with the teeth apart the width of one finger. A as in fat, e as in her, and a as in ask are grouped together with directions to pronounce with the teeth apart the width of two fingers. A as in arm and u as in up are grouped together with directions to pronounce with the teeth apart the width of three fingers. In actual speech these positions are modified by preceding or following consonants, but for practise these directions are excellent. The novelty and definiteness of the directions make them interesting to the pupil.

Specific directions for lips, tongue, and palate positions in the formation of consonant sounds should be given to the pupil. An elaborate analysis of these positions may be found in Bell's Dictionary of Sounds. The exercises for developing control of the organs involved are too numerous and technical to be given at this time. Once the pupil's interest in technique is fully aroused, they are not too technical for his use, and once mastered, their effect in making the speech clear and precise is most conspicuous.

We must be honest in judging the results of our instruction. Our task is a tedious one, and results are certain to be only partially satisfactory until the public has been aroused to the point of demanding effective speech from the average American.

## THE PLACE OF LOGIC IN A SYSTEM OF PERSUASION

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**I**N THE July Number of THE QUARTERLY JOURNAL I presented the thesis, drawn from the conclusions of psychology, that the fixing of a line between what is called conviction and what is called persuasion cannot be successfully done; that the two in effect seek the same end; in that, according to psychology we must conceive of all reactions, all results of speaking and writing, as various manifestations of the one concept, response. From this I criticised certain traditional reasons for drawing a line between "conviction" and "persuasion," and then offered as the explanation of the division the difference between the openness and the secretness of the response sought. I contended that we have come to look upon hidden responses as the aim of conviction, and overt responses as the aim of persuasion. From this the conclusion was drawn that in reality only one general process was involved, and that of the names applicable the best is persuasion.\*

\*The criticism offered by Mr. E. L. Hunt on this use of a single term to cover all activities of both body and mind fails to dislodge me from my position, for Mr. Hunt has committed the very patent fallacy of ambiguous terminology in his attempts to refute my primary contention. When he says, "But if theorizing is thinking and theorizing destroys action, then we have fallen into a dualism between thought and action," obviously he assumes to have overthrown my central point, the concept of a monism as presented in Response. I take it that my critic must stake his whole point on this sentence. But note the gross fallacy it commits. My point had been that all processes fall properly under one concept, response; that belief, thinking, conviction, attitude, and action are all one and the same thing as the psychologist views them. I quoted representative psychologists to support my contention. Mr. Hunt then assumes to refute my conclusion that they all are one, by naively referring to these processes as if they must be different; yet he does this without taking the slightest pains to challenge my reasons for thinking them to be one—the testimony of psychologists quoted in liberal measure and unequivocal—in import. He should first have refuted the psychologists; only then could he logically assume that he could speak of "theorizing" and "thinking" as if they were in a different category from "action." Until he actually overthrows the psychologists—not merely sneers at them—he is in no logical

From these conclusions certain consequences inevitably follow. The one dealt with in the present article is this: that if only one process is involved, then we face a question as to what to do with logic and with what has been called non-logical address. It is a question that must be met in a very serious manner. For if one aim, response, covers all attempts to get results, then either there is no place for logic in a system of persuasion in its broader sense, or else logic must be shown to run throughout the whole process. It is the latter position that I shall take in this paper: all speech-making, writing, treatise, exposition, written or spoken compositions of all kinds, must, in order to be effective, embody the rules of logic.

#### THE PERVASIVENESS OF LOGIC

Everyone is familiar with the division of beliefs and actions into rational versus non-rational, logical versus non-logical. This paper will try to show that such a division, like that into conviction versus persuasion, resolves itself into a division between *hidden* versus *overt* processes, and only that. In other words, logic operates not only in the open, by means of words, but also perchance under cover, through processes that may use words, yet more often are entirely wordless. That is to say, in all our activities there is an unconscious logic playing its part even when we think it is not there, although we are never able to detect its presence or to be sure of its results. Below the level of introspective awareness inferences are made, syllogisms carried through, and conclusions validated, in the same way and by the same mechanism as that by which we reason in speech or writing in conscious life.

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position to make such conclusions as the one quoted above. So I repeat that in the absence of any attack upon the position of the authorities quoted, my proposition stands; namely, that all mental and bodily processes can properly be classed under the one head, *response*, a satisfactory concept to cover all cases involved.

As to my conclusions that what we have been calling conviction is merely that type of address aimed at hidden responses, while persuasion is that type aimed at overt responses, Mr. Hunt is significantly silent. This present article is an amplification of that doctrine and an extension of it to the place of logic in a general scheme of persuasion in its broader sense.

This concept is far from new. The processes involved have been given the name, "Unconscious judgments."\* Surely no one will deny the existence of processes that go on back in our minds which bring us to certain fixed conclusions without our ever knowing how we arrived at them. Any man who will canvass faithfully his present store of beliefs and convictions must inevitably discover that he can give no adequate account of the origin of most of them. Some few he can trace to a particular origin, but the majority of them come from he knows not where. Psychologists today can accept no other explanation than that they come from processes going on below consciousness and that they work in substantially the same way as a process of ratiocination performed consciously. The fundamental difference between them is that one is carried on by means of words on the conscious level while the other is carried on below the level of introspective awareness, and without needing words for the process. By whatever name we call this process, "unconscious judgment," "hidden inference," or "subconscious logic," it is a reality and plays a most vital part in our life activities.

A very satisfactory explanation of the phenomenon is given by the universally accepted fact that mental processes of all kinds are neuromuscular processes; that without nervous activity there is no mentality; and that, vice versa, all mentality comes from, or is, nervous activity affecting the muscles of the body. Clearly the use of the most formal logic goes back to nervous processes; so likewise the use of this hidden logic finds its base in the activities of the nervous system; and there can be little difficulty in conceiving the existence of the same sort of processes going on below the level of speech and of introspective awareness. The gross

\*I am greatly indebted to Professor E. B. Holt for the following references to discussions of "unconscious judgment." A half century ago a dispute waged over this concept, and seemingly was settled adversely. More recent discoveries, however, have again given the concept validity.

See Helmholtz, H. "Physiologische Optik," 1867, S. 392, 430, 477 (editions of 1866, S. 557 ff., 602); also "Die Thatsachen in Wahrnehmung"; 1879, S. 25-29 (a recantation, S. 27-8).

Schopenhauer, A. "Der Satz vom Grunde, 1813, Kapitel IV.

Leibniz, "Principe de la nature et de la grâce, 1714, 17.

Hamilton, Wm., Mills "Examination of Sir Wm. Hamilton's Philosophy," 1865, vol. II, p. 15.

Brücke, "Poggendorff's Annalen," 1881, Bd. 84, S. 424.

Weber, E. H., "Tastsinn und Gemeingefühl," 1846.

Herring, E., Pflüger's Archiv, 1887, XLI, S. 91.

Stumpf, C., "Tonpsychologie," 1883, Bd. I, S. 31-37, 40-41.

physiology and psychology of this process is the least difficult thing about it to understand, for psychology, by the aid of physiology, has opened within recent years a new world in its studies of the subconscious. Though the minutiae of the mechanism cannot be described, yet the general mechanism can be stated with certainty and clearness.

Once we accept the reality of this unconscious logic, we are in a position to discover that it is a part of all our thinking, that we are never free from it, that in reality it dominates not only our unseen thought, but our overt activities, in fact our very lives. *For every act of perception, of understanding, of cognition, of belief, of conviction, is a process of this subconscious making of inferences and judgments.* All knowing, assurance, feeling sure, acceptance as true, deciding that a thing is right, recognition of facts, come about through dispositions of the nervous system which are precisely the same as that involved in logical processes of the most open kind. As far as the patterns of the nervous system are concerned—the so-called neurograms—it is one and the same process.

One cannot say, "This is a book," one cannot even say "book" knowingly as the name of an object, without having gone through an elaborate ratiocinative process, probably in the dark, of nervous patterns that yield no information to introspective consciousness.\* Behind such a judgment lies a process at least as complicated as the following: "red color, dark shade, shadows on the edges, white border, rectilinear shape, made of cloth and paper, just what I have encountered before and found to be book, what I have used as book and found to serve 'book' ends; therefore a book." This process goes on whether we are merely recognizing a friend or working out a problem in calculus. I cannot tell how far away a pencil is from my hand, how high a chair is on which I expect to sit, how suitable my wearing gear is for the weather, without an inference, conscious or unconscious; and any one of these three instances may as easily be decided on the unconscious level as on the conscious. I have never consciously counted the steps of our front porch, but I could go up in the dark without a mistake; I know for certain how far to reach to turn on a certain electric light switch in the dark near the front door, but I have never measured it nor tried to make a conscious esti-

\*Step Rude, B. H., "An Outline of Logic," N. Y. 1910; pp. 223-225.

nate of it; I know beyond any chance of hesitancy the amount of muscular tension necessary to reach for a sheet of paper in the holder on my desk, but I have never made any conscious calculation of the distance. All these acts are made possible only by a sub-conscious linking and uniting of nervous components, a process that is in reality reasoning, or logical inference.

I cannot determine that I am in danger from an on-coming street car, however quickly I may perceive the danger and avoid it, unless my nervous system performs activities which, put into words, would represent the following: "That car is going at such and such a speed (not stated in miles per hour, but in a concept of fast or slow); if I go forward at the rate at which I am now going, we shall meet; I shall get the worse of that; for a man cannot run into a street car without danger; and as I do not want any accident, I had better halt here till the car gets by." Reduced to syllogistic form the process could be summarized: "All objects having such and such qualities are moving street cars, this object has those qualities, therefore this is a moving street car; all encounters between moving street cars and pedestrians are dangerous to the pedestrians, I am a pedestrian, therefore an encounter between me and that moving car will be dangerous to me; by keeping out of the way of the car one can be safe, I will keep out of the way, and therefore I shall be safe." The process might be elaborated even more minutely, for surely even a larger number of nervous connections are components of the process; for to bring behavior to the level of drawing back habitually from an approaching danger in a complicated situation like the one pictured, a vast accumulation of nervous connections is needed. But whether we think of this from the physiological point of view, from the psychological, or the logical, the process is the same in its essential nature.

Here we have the foundations of logic, inference on the sub-conscious level. The fact that texts on logic have made no mention of this arises from the circumstance that only recently has there been any clearing up of the psychology of the subconscious, or, as Münsterberg paradoxically calls it, the "unconscious conscious." But now that it has been recognized and its mechanism understood, we are in a position to explain certain facts of persuasion which have long been perceived, but which have not been

satisfactorily worked into a system. I refer to the power of what is broadly called "Experience," as supposedly distinguished from logic, emotion as supposedly distinguished from conviction, non-rational thinking as purporting to be different from rational. Also we can now explain just what part the personal prestige of the speaker or writer plays in a formal system of persuasion. As far as my investigation goes, no statement has been found that aims so to correlate and systematize these obviously powerful agents in persuasion. An account of these phenomena will here be offered in terms of response as the one end of persuasion, and of inference as the means of validation of beliefs, convictions, facts, truth of all kinds. This paper, then, is an explanation of the mechanisms of logic as a factor in all attempts to secure response by the use of speech.

By far the greater number of these subconscious processes are not verbal; they are carried on without the use of words. Words are by no means necessary to thought, nor to perception; that is to say that they are not at all necessary to inference and judgment. The function of speech is social; where there is no communication, implying a social situation, there is no need of speech. We use words—speech—only when there are other people to whom we wish to communicate. At that, not all communication is verbal; we get on by signs and gesture more than we sometimes suspect. Formal logic deals with those inferences that are made with words in the open before the eyes and ears of men. But the words do not make the logic; they are not the part essential to the fundamental reasoning processes; they are only the surface expression. The real reasoning, the analyzing, the discriminating, the abstracting—the fundamental processes involved in reasoning—are carried on in nervous patterns below the level of speech, and are only lifted up to the level of words when there is a social situation wherein one man wishes to communicate verbally to others. For such situations logic has been formulated. Yet the overwhelmingly great majority of inferences we make are non-verbal. The process runs its course, we analyze, discriminate likenesses and differences, abstract, synthesize, sweep through syllogisms, draw our conclusion, fix a judgment, and perform acts that naturally ensue—without ever needing a word to help out.

## LEVELS OF EXPOSURE OF LOGICAL PROCESSES

If we may consider, now, that the existence of the subconscious judgment is established, and that its place in the process of thinking and of doing overt deeds is real and vital, we are ready to apply this concept to the facts of persuasion. The beginning is found in the fact that *inferences are made on three levels*. These levels are inherent in the situation characteristic of persuasion, where one man desires by the use of words to influence others; that is, the following factors are always found in every attempt to persuade: (1) Listeners, who are in the habit of making most of their inferences out of sight of observing eyes, (2) a relation between the speaker and the listeners, and (3) the words used and the way the speaker uses them to secure response from the hearers. These three factors give us three levels on which inference is carried on. These levels are laid out on planes of social exposure. That is to say: *they represent three differences in openness and concealment of the inference-making process*. They can be roughly described as inferences made (1) covertly, (2) semi-openly, and (3) in the open. We shall now sketch the mechanism, function, and place of these in a system of persuasion.

(1) *Subconscious Inferences*. These are made below the surface, below the level of introspective awareness, and scarcely ever employ words. These are the inferences of which we have been speaking. They are elemental, fundamental, all-pervading, dominating. They govern all but a small part of our activities; they are the basis of most of our thinking, they *are* our thinking. They are the record that we call experience. These inferences produce our clear activities. Their components are the precise components of all response; for response is synonymous with experience. The more intense the response, the more it involves the whole body, the more often it is repeated, or the more recently it has been made, then the more likely is it to be repeated when the proper stimulation occurs. Thus whatever is clear, whatever is repeated, and whatever is recent, is likely to be the substance out of which inferences are made on the unconscious level. In other words, all experiences which are vividly concrete, which are habitual, and which are recent, unite under the pressure of a need or a wish to make judgments the very

existence of which the experiencing person knows not of. So when these experiences are translated into speech, he finds himself in possession of a full quota of connections—beliefs, notions, judgments—the origin of which neither he nor anybody else can ever precisely trace out. And when men listen as hearers, or when they read what is written, these experiences are thrown into function again by words that call up concrete pictures, by words that restate old and long-cherished notions and beliefs, by words that bring up experiences that are recent. In other terms, experiences play their part in persuasion by coming into motor activity under the stimulus of *words of proper denotation and connotation*.

A simple designation for this type of judgment is the term commonly applied to it and easily understood, *Experience*. Whatever impresses us from out of the welter of stimulations around us, leaves its mark. In every such stimulation a judgment is involved, else it could have no meaning; where there is meaning there is unconscious inference. Thus the first of the levels of social exposure in the making of inferences is this subconscious process by which our every-day, subjective experiences are validated into realities and are accepted, when put into words, as facts and truth; it rests on what we call "the evidence of our senses."

On this level it is that we fix prejudices, personal opinions, whims, conceits, and pet notions. It is the level on which we accept and keep our superstitions and our blind allegiance to principles that we dare not discuss in public. The man who says that his spiritual nature is too sacred to talk about accepts his belief in it on this level; the man who stands by his party when he knows he dares not defend it in words does the same thing; so also the man who says, "Hang logic, I know this is right whether it argues out well or not!" In this mechanism we get an explanation of "logic-tight compartments." Men form judgments by a process they cannot inspect; these judgments through constant exercise turn into fixed beliefs; but from the very dimness of the place in which they are made, inconsistencies among them are never detected because never inspected. Other people see them much more quickly and clearly than we ourselves because they can see our overt actions while we go on operating this

machinery out of our own sight in the dark of our self-assurance and self-content.

By this same mechanism we get intuitions, inspirations, poetic insight, sporting "hunches," scientific hypotheses, occult leadings, and spiritual promptings. The hearing of voices whether of demons or of gods, the call to this or that mission, the fortifying of the spirit against oppression and tyranny, all come about on this plane. And all these, it will be noted, are the very bone and sinew of our personal, subjective thinking; hence they are of the most vital importance in any attempt to move other people by speech to do what we desire them to do.

Thus the first of the levels of social exposure in making inferences is that subconscious process by which our every-day subjective experiences are validated into realities and are accepted as facts and truth. When a speaker or writer can so choose words as to stir up in us these old experiences, these nervous connections, he gets us to accept his assertions as true and moving.

(2) *Semi-Open Inferences.* The second level of exposure can be called Semi-Open. This is the level of suggestion instigated by speech, the acceptance of the word of others. This is in general the type of acceptance that we call belief by authority. Such belief is the result of inferences that are made partly out of sight and partly in the open. If we call this type by the name *Authority*, we shall apply a term that is readily understood and accepted.

Here we come to the level of speech. Of our hidden judgments, those resting on subjective experience, some few can with effort be dragged up into the light and put into words; but only a few of them and on special occasions. Those on the level of Authority, however, cannot operate without words. Hence this type of judgment-making is social, partially objective, and so is subject to the criticism that publicity engenders. On this level we approach logical rigor. Whereas inferences made in the dark have no concern over logical consistency, each being a law unto itself and able to live in its "logic-tight compartment" in perfect peace, judgments made at all in the open have to yield to the requirements of some logical exactness and consistency.

The mechanism of inference on this level is as follows. Some person whom we trust or like states in words his experiences

framed into judgments; and for reasons good to us we accept that experience as valid for response. Part of this occurs out of sight and part in the open. Certain links are wholly secret and subjective, others are exposed. Those that are hidden are not subject to inspection; those that are exposed, however, are subject to criticism, and so are made with stricter regard for consistency than those made where no critic can stare them out of countenance. The open half, then, of this type of inference-making reveals the beginnings of a certain type of rigor that texts on argumentation show us how to apply—the rules of “evidence” as developed by court practices of the ages. These rules are in reality misnamed; they are properly rules of *testimony*, but called rules of “evidence” for the simple reason that most of the evidence allowed in court procedure is of the testimony type, whereas in ordinary experience evidence is more often a matter of observation than of testimony.

The hidden half of this process—and in a way the more vital half—being made in the dark is not subject to criticism, and so is non-rigorous. In the first place the judgments of anyone's accepted authority are for the most part made below the verbal level in the subconscious; so when he and we happen to be sufficiently like-minded so that we accept him as a maker of our opinions, rarely are we disposed to detect possible weaknesses in the logic that he has used upon himself. Then besides, our own process of making the judgment that his word is worth relying upon is connected up down in the hidden places. Such a judgment would read in words something like this: “He is a good-looking man, well-dressed and confident in manner; I like to be in harmony with good-looking, well-dressed, confident people; therefore I agree with him.” Similar minor premises to such a syllogism might be: “He bears a wide reputation for humor; He belongs to our church; our lodge; our party; He smiled at me as he came in the door; He combs his hair in a most adorable fashion”—and a thousand others just as efficacious and just as poorly competent to withstand the light of social scrutiny.

There are two general aspects of inference on this level. The first involves those inferences that are based upon Personal Prestige. When we honor a man for what he has done, or is reputed to have done, if we like him as companion, co-worker, or as-

sociate, then we infer—deep down—that we can trust what he says; so we respond accordingly and accept his dicta as true. This is clearly a matter of inference; we can even state to ourselves just why we accept such a one: "He's a man of talents," "Such a spiritual nature!" "A man of great wisdom and profundity, sir!"—and therefore worth following. Thus on this level we can part of the time be willing to state our reasons for accepting, while at other times we are glad enough to escape quizzing on the subject. *A very considerable portion of every speech and composition has no other basis for acceptance by hearer or reader.* We can very properly keep for this type the name commonly given—Personal Prestige.

A common phase of this mechanism is seen in the certainty with which the utterances of an accepted speaker or writer set off a train of hidden inferences in the hearer or reader, and so establish a conclusion not previously made and not specifically reasoned out by the speaker. Often the speaker says something which leaves us in the attitude of saying, "To be sure, that is correct; I see that clearly now." The explanation is that we have previously accepted certain components of the inference, or all of them; then the speaker either furnishes us with a missing component or draws the inference we have not made the effort to draw. This is of the type made partially in secret and partially in the open. In fact it is inference on the lowest level of openness; for no observer can possibly detect the inference itself; he merely has before him a verbal statement which serves as the missing link, but with no evidence of the existence of the other links.

The other aspect of inference on the middle level of exposure is found in the willingness we exhibit toward accepting the judgment of any man who is an *expert* in the matter he is talking about. The inference here involved does us no discredit and we are willing enough to expose it to public gaze. We have no hesitancy in revealing why we believe the declaration of an eminent economist, a skilled chemist, or of any man speaking of matters in his own profession or trade. We are equally willing to let anyone know that we accept a government report, a dictionary, or a scientific monograph. We extend this to a willingness to validate the declarations of one who has had peculiar

opportunities for learning facts; the man who actually saw the accident, the man who has been in the trenches, the man who has seen and heard and touched. Experts are of many kinds, and each in his field is regarded as worthy of credence and acceptance. Just in proportion as the expert's special knowledge is above criticism are we willing to take him as a guide for our conduct; we let such inference-making enjoy the broad sunlight. This type of inference has its name—Testimony.

These two bases of inference, Prestige and Testimony, can be the support, not only of a third party quoted, but of the speaker himself. In fact the speaker always poses as something of an expert; he has to, otherwise someone else would be speaking and he would be listening. The same applies to the writer. The word of either may be accepted because he is liked, because he has an attractive speaking or literary style, or because he is known to be an expert in his field. A speaker may be without graces yet eminent in his field, or he may be stuffed with graces and an ignoramus; in either case he can establish hidden inferences that lead to the acceptance of what he says. But if men accept him for his graces only, they will hesitate to reveal their reasoning to others; while if they accept him because of his learning, they are proud enough to have the secret known. Always behind such acceptance of Authority upon the basis of Personal Prestige or of Expertness lies an inference more or less hidden from public gaze.

(3) *Openly-Made Inferences.* The third level of social exposure in the making of inferences presents familiar features—open inference expressed outright in words where all can inspect and criticize; the level of inference that engages the attention of books of logic. Here we have the means for being as objective as we care to be, by making judgments in the open and inviting on-lookers to observe just how we do it. When we show every joint, every connection, every step that leads from one stage to the next, then we are indulging in logical rigor, the fixed star of the scientist, the philosopher, and in a lesser degree of the careful advocate, the honest statesman, and the thoughtful divine. Inferences made in this way are always subject to criticism; in fact it is with a purpose that they are made in the open, to fortify them against the attacks of adverse criticism.

This means that when hearers are not ready to accept us for our good looks or because our experience happens to coincide with theirs, then we must resort to open, more-or-less-rigorous reasoning in order to win them.

Yet all open reasoning is not equally rigorous. We are only as rigorous as we have to be; most of our thinking is subjective, and our habit is to avoid rigor rather than to cultivate it. In fact success in persuasion often demands that the marks of rigor be carefully omitted. One does not argue in a funeral sermon; in a commemorative address or in a speech for entertainment and delight one does well to see that the joints of reasoning do not protrude. In general *logical rigor must be in direct proportion to the tension that exists between the speaker and his hearers*. Where there is strain, doubt, disbelief, a problem to solve, ignorance, darkness to dispel, the logical links must be brought out into the light and revealed with care and frankness. Where the tension is greatest, criticism unrelenting, opposition unyielding, joints must be obvious in the extreme and so logical rigor most complete. Yet at bottom the process involved is the same as that which goes on down in the hidden places where we make most of the additions to our thinking. The virtue in logical rigor is that in a social situation we escape the charge of prejudice and faulty observation. This level of inference can readily be given the name of *Reasoning*.

#### FUNCTIONS OF THE THREE LEVELS

All three of these levels of inference play a constant part in persuasion. (1) Without accepting inferences made out of our private experiences we could never frame a sentence or have any basis whatever for accepting judgments of any kind. Every sentence uttered by others would be nothing but a blank to us. Experience gives us our working capital of common knowledge, axioms, "facts of every-day experience," "what everybody knows," "the evidence of the senses." In speech and composition this level is brought into function by the use of words that stand as experience and so furnish the material for new inferences. (2) Secondly, without Authority we should merely be in a tread mill of our own notions. But by taking as valid the experience of others we can, when we listen and read, grow in experience and

knowledge and so prepare ourselves for new situations and new experiences. It is inevitable that much of what we hear and read must be offered by the speaker or writer only on his own validation without documentation or explanation of how he came by it; we, the listeners, must be satisfied in knowing that he believes it to be true. (3) Lastly, Reasoning—careful, honest, fair, sometimes hard, Reasoning, is inherent in all persuasion; for always there is some measure of tension, strain, resistance, inertia, ignorance, or opposition, if there is any real demand for a speech or treatise. Always will audiences and reading publics be disposed to criticize and demand a sight of the logical joints; at least they will feel the need of discrimination, analysis, abstraction, and synthesis—the component parts of the reasoning process.

Thus we bring up again at the statement, made at the beginning of the paper, that persuasion in all its forms has need of logic and a need that is constant and unyielding.

#### LOGICAL FORMULAE OF THE THREE LEVELS

These levels of inference have each its special logical formulae, its own set of rules. Space does not permit us to amplify them here; most of these rules are as well known as those of arithmetic. They are to be found in texts on Rhetoric, Argumentation, Court Procedure, and Logic. If we remember that the simple definition of logic is that it is "the rules of the game of talk," we can see that any body of regulations that helps to govern communication, or talk, is a part of the larger whole, logic, whether hidden or revealed. As logic operates on three levels, there must be a different set of rules for each level. Very briefly this paper can suggest—merely suggest—the range of the rules for the different levels.

On level (1), that of Hidden inference, the rules that govern are those that have to do with the choice of words and the construction of sentences and paragraphs. Words must be chosen, if a speaker is to induce hidden inferences in others, so that they give clear meaning free from ambiguity and haziness, so that they impress above the mass of other competing stimulators, so that they win in the struggle among the contending parties for a motor

outlet.\* Words are well chosen for this end if they call up old memories, clear images, intense attitudes, and long-cherished concepts. Vividness, repetition, recency thus play a vital part in ascertaining which of a hearer's past experiences can most easily and surely be connected into judgments. Thus it is that concrete words, abstract words of wide connotation, words of deep meaning peculiar to a given audience, and words that call up fresh experience, must be chosen if a maximum of effectiveness in stirring up response is to be secured. It is the function of Rhetoric to show how this selecting should be done.

Next, words when used must be bound together into sentences in obedience to certain laws, else the hidden inference will lack its connecting links in the inner thought processes of the hearer or reader. In Composition these rules are stated as principles of Unity, Coherence, and Emphasis. They are at bottom provisions for facilitating discrimination on the part of readers and hearers. Only that type of composition that helps the reader or hearer to understand the speaker's or writer's meanings and to agree with them, can ever hope to succeed in a discourse of any length or complexity.

For level (2), that of Authority, some of the formulae have been worked out, while others have not. A body of rules for the exercise of Prestige has not yet been organized and perfected; this is the one spot in the system of persuasion that reveals a pronounced gap. Texts on Argumentation and Debate, in the closing chapters, offer an abundance of practical advice on making oneself personally acceptable to audiences so that they will infer that what one says is reliable.† But none that has yet appeared has organized these bits of advice into a system as orderly

\*Cf. Winans, "Public Speaking," N. Y., 1917, for an excellent amplification of the power of words as thus used. Winans calls this the power of Attention, which may be to some a more understandable way of putting the case than calling it a matter of stimulus-response, as in this paper. Its weakness, however, lies in that it does not open the way to showing how all appeal and composition is aimed at one single reaction; and it also does not provide a mechanism whereby the place of logic can be explained adequately as a factor in persuasion. It tends rather to drive us into making a differentiation between conviction and persuasion, on the assumption that conviction aims at logical processes while persuasion deals only with non-logical. The object of this present paper is to refute precisely this assumption.

†See Winans, *on. cit.*, Chapters VIII and IX for the fullest discussion in any text.

as the system of rules of Rhetoric and Composition for hidden judgments and as binding as those of Logic for judgments made in the open.

For level (3), that of open reasoning, the formulae are as definite and precise as the most exacting needs of speech require; the rules of logic are one of the surest possessions of the science of persuasion in its known forms. Nothing need be adduced here to show that they are aspects of inference-making; for that is their specific function. All judgments made in the open must conform to the rule of logic or fail in effectiveness; they must be made according to an accepted logical method or be declared insufficient for their purpose.

#### FUNDAMENTALS OF REASONING AND THE THREE LEVELS

A brief statement of the processes involved in reasoning\* will add to our appreciation of the significance of the three levels. At bottom reasoning, ratiocination, is a two-fold process; (a) one of analysis and discrimination, (b) one of abstraction and synthesis. Inference on each of the levels yields a different degree of loyalty to these two processes. Open, purely verbal reasoning—logic in its most rigorous form—splits and refines and clarifies its concepts consciously until ambiguity of meaning is reduced to a minimum. Thus in composition that leaves all the joints exposed the highest virtue is accuracy of definition and unmistakable delineation of likenesses and differences.† Make it impossible for a hearer to mistake what is meant and how one idea leads to another, and the matter of inference takes care of itself; for man is an inferring machine. The test of accuracy in discrimination is found in objectivity, in a reply to the question, "Is this concept or image or proposition received as truth by other people? Does their experience coincide with mine on this point?" Logical rigor is the method of disclosing connections so that a maximum of objective acceptance is assured.

On the middle level, that of authority, discrimination may be much less accurate and still may secure response. When we blindly follow party leaders or religious masters or fraternal

\*For discussions of the reasoning process see James' "Psychology," Vol. II., Chap. XXII, on Reasoning; in particular pp. 327-330, 340, 345-348, 363; also Romanes, G. J., *Mental Evolution in Man*; Chaps. III and IV. (The doctrine of the *recept* is highly illuminating to this discussion); and Bode, B. H., "An Outline of Logic," N. Y. 1910; Chap. XIV.

†V. Bode, *op. cit.*

associates, we can all too easily be made to call white black or at least a dark grey. As a matter of common knowledge most logic made by authority is weak in discriminating differences, differences which those who have not lived our particular experiences can detect with ease. In many cases of reliance upon authority, only those differences that are of a gross nature are responded to, such as that between mine and thine, prosperity and distress, right and wrong, virtue and vice. Such vague and all but meaningless abstractions are a common medium of exchange in speaking that is fortified principally by authority.

On the lowest level, that of hidden inferences, discrimination is a term to be used only by courtesy. It is axiomatic in psychology that perception is in reality synonymous with illusion; that is to say, our commonest perceptions are so indefinite and inaccurate that they do not bear the test of objective reality. The massive machinery of court procedure is made necessary by the inaccuracy of man's powers of observation. Hence the need of what William James refers to as "brass instruments" in research. Our inner judgments are always personal, subjective; and so they are seldom acceptable according to any rigid standard of objective judgment. The very absence of words in which to state them leads to confusion. Discrimination on the hidden level is at best hazy; as soon as a judgment can be shown to be purely subjective, it is greatly suspected in open court; and any inferences that grow from it can only be employed on hearers or readers who have chanced to have the same experiences and who, most of the time, have made the same error.

#### THE MOTIVE POWER OF INFERENCE

One more point and the chain that makes up this article is complete, and the propositions set forth will square with the teachings of psychology and the experience of any speaker or listener. Whence do inferences arise? For the making of new judgments we must find a driving force. We find it in the motor attitude of the organism, the set, the determination, the bent, which actuates it at any one time. This is a matter of nervous organization. However, we can speak of this in terms that fit more clearly into our every-day usages; for there is a concept to express it that is so comprehensive, so illuminating, that we can

use it with great profit. I refer to what Freud calls the Wish.\* Everything we do is the result of a wish, either hidden from sight in the subjective processes or in words objectively in the open. The wish is the engine that runs the motor of life, and every being has its quota of big and little wishes. Some few of them we confess to openly; others of them we dare not mention even if we know them; while most of them we know nothing about and would disown if they were charged against us.

These wishes all center in one master wish, the wish to survive on the best possible terms, *the ego wish*. All other wishes, for food, for sex life, for safety, fame, rank, power, money, exploring new things, wearing fine clothes, living forever, helping others, doing our bit, seeing pictures, or singing in the choir, are but manifestations of the one wish to live on life's best terms.

The point to this seeming digression comes in this: that it is the wish that motivates inference and judgment. Inferences are hardly made out of blue sky; they are forced upon us. Every inference arises because we are pleased to make it; we believe because we want to; we respond in a given way because that is the way we are heading. So, to speak of levels of inference is also to speak of levels of *openness in wishing*. We can wish in the dark, as we all do most sinfully; or we can wish half in the open, and charge the wish to some man of prestige or expertness; and then again we can wish fairly in the open where everyone can see us in the act.

Our hidden wishes are often pretty shady; the ego wish is frequently ruthless, frightful, and meanly selfish. Our semi-open wishes may be good or they may be bad. If the authority we accept happens to be generous, then the wishes look acceptable; but if he is moved by unlovely wishes, we can be serene in the thought that the fault is not ours. Lastly, when we reason in the open, we wear our wishes on our sleeves. Then we become, oh, so virtuous! We wish, in the open, only for honor, righteousness, altruism, patriotism, justice, sweetness and light! Indeed we do; observe any plea, by philanthropist or profiteer, conformist or blasphemer, statesman or demagogue, and you will see that all the exposed inferences are assumed to be motivated

\*See Holt, E. B., "The Freudian Wish," N. Y. 1915, for a clear application of the Wish concept to human behavior.

only by wishes that are unselfish, chaste, polite, and socially aseptic.

#### FALLACIES

The relation of this to logic? Simply this, that *all fallacies in reasoning reveal attempts to supplant a wish of which we are ashamed by one which we think will be more socially acceptable*. Every fallacy that is given a name in the text books can be shown to be the out-cropping of a suppressed wish.\* Fallacies are the unwitting disclosures of hidden wishes. Trace down false logic and you can always find a hidden wish, which its owner will most of the time disavow energetically at the time in public, though he obeys it the rest of the time submissively in private.†

\*For the vast ethical significance of the suppressed wish in our lives, see Holt, "The Freudian Wish," *cit. supra*; also see the works of Sigmund Freud and of his followers. For a clear understanding of the mechanism of the sub-conscious in our lives, especially in its relation to logic and speech, see Bernard Hart, "The Psychology of Insanity," particularly in what he says of "rationalisation."

†The strictures made by Mr. E. L. Hunt in the October QUARTERLY JOURNAL on my article concerning certain theoretical considerations of Conviction and Persuasion in the JOURNAL for July make an interesting study in the escaped wish. Mr. Hunt ridicules psychology, denies the validity of science, and then makes philosophy look nonsensical and ridiculous. Is it a very wild guess to suspect that Mr. Hunt is doing his best to vent a troublesome wish to shine in one or all of these fields?

Mr. Hunt makes at least five separate logical fallacies in his article, each representing an escape of this suppressed wish; (1) evasion of the issue as I presented it; my article concerned only a matter of rhetorical theory, a fact which he ignored in his article; instance his utterly irrelevant remarks about college freshmen; (2) ambiguous use of terms, "theoretical attitude of mind" versus "response" (see foot-note on p. 19); (3) perversion of the intent of an opponent's words, when he accuses me of attempting "to compel teachers of public speaking to borrow their terms from psychology" merely because I insisted that psychological terms must be treated by psychological meanings (no one needs to "compel" teachers of public speaking to use psychological terms; you couldn't keep them from it with guns; they simply have to use terms like *action, thinking, belief, convictions, thought, ideas, images, concepts, attitude*, in order to say even the simplest things about the rudiments of their business); (4) perversion of the intent of quoted specialists, as when he sets William James, Hugo Münsterberg, and John Dewey in opposition to science; so flagrant a violation of the truth as to border on something worse than an accidental slip; (5) talking beside the point—in several passages which seemingly were thrown in to furnish an opportunity for dazzling us with flashes of philosophical tinsel.

We can be grateful to Mr. Hunt for the illustration he has furnished us for our point. How many people would see any difficulty in deciding what hidden wish has cropped out in this sparkling array of bad logic offered in a cause of exceedingly doubtful credit to its upholders?

## COROLLARIES

Here then is offered a view of persuasion and logic that makes provision for the following known realities, many of which, though commonplaces, have found no explanation in the terms in which current text books are couched:

(a) There is such a thing as "the will to believe"; it is a clear manifestation of hidden inferences.

(b) We assume to believe one thing and then proceed to do its opposite, what has been called "irrational conduct"; because the hidden, unspoken, and often unconfessed inference is stronger than the verbal one.

(c) A man may be "convinced against his will" and "be of the same opinion still"; because his new "conviction" is only verbal, while the old hidden wish continues to make inferences as of yore.

(d) A speaker can lose with close logic one time and then win with it the next time, or *vice versa*; for the reason that at one time his specific hearers prefer to follow hidden inferences which he cannot reach, while the next time they are content only at seeing all the joints exposed.

(e) A speaker can win by personal graces and by his reputation in spite of defective logic; because in the minds of the audience the hidden inferences he instigates are paramount.

(f) A speaker's power over his audience may be binding in any degree, merely because of personal prestige; for this prestige rests on hidden, deep-set inferences which do not yield to verbal logic and which live in "logic-tight compartments" without interference from one another.

(g) Open logic has very definite limitations in the gaining of desired responses; because listeners have wishes deep down which make inferences despite any power of words to fulfill a wish which is more open but less strong.

(h) The speaker is more than a mouth-piece of truth, he is a *maker* of it; because he induces the inner logic which is the most powerful of all.

(i) Good rhetoric and strong composition often make up for deficiencies in rigorous logic; for the reason that thus inner judgments are established, the more vital ones, at the expense of many outer and patent judgments which are ignored.

(j) Men will flagrantly and wantonly pin their faith to open fallacies that any critical mind can see must be easily detected; for the reason that some hidden wish blinds them to the absurdity of the breach of the rules of open talk.

#### SUMMARY

(1) Inferences, judgments, logical connections, are made in neuro-muscular patterns.

(2) Most of them are made below the level of consciousness.

(3) In speech, on the behavior level of words, these inferences are to be tested by the well-known laws of logic.

(4) There are three levels of social exposure on which inferences are made: (a) hidden, (b) semi-open, and (c) open.

(5) Each level has its own formula for practice and use: (a) the rules of Rhetoric, (b) the laws of Testimony together with advice as to Prestige, and (c) Logic.

(6) All inferences are made as the result of wishes, and all fallacies are the result of the escape of suppressed wishes, thus inducing inconsistencies between words used and attitudes held.

## PERSONAL EXPRESSION IN THE HIGH SCHOOL

E. E. DODD

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**T**WO friends, James and William, attended school together. James was the stronger student, and in some respects the stronger character, but his wonder was many times aroused on finding that William was the object of attentions and preferments that did not come to him. It finally occurred to James that his friend had an endowment which he did not possess, the capacity for being both agreeable to others and serviceable to them. While James was many times digging into the problems of mathematics and science, heedless of the world of people about him, William was alert to the real contacts of life, always ready to do more than his bit to cause the wheels of life to run smoothly. James had much interest in books and studies, William had a large interest in personal relationships. Naturally each one developed in the line of his chief interest.

Happy for himself and others is the person who by virtue of his inclination and training is a factor and force among people; and unfortunate indeed is the one who does not know how to be useful to himself and others through easy and effective associations with them. Nearly all of the relations which we esteem highly are of the personal kind. In the home, in the school, in the church, and in the thousand casual contacts of the street and shop, the relations are mostly of the personal kind, and many of the finest words in our language describe these relations. The pleasures and successes of life are bound up in, and depend upon these personal relations.

In many of our schools the senior pupil who has the highest average of classroom grades gets the valedictory honor; the one having the next highest average gets the salutatory; the valedictorian wins a scholarship to some college or university. No one of us will decry good scholarship, we all prize it, but the world places no such premium as the school does on scholarship alone. Its tests are of a saner sort. Both in the social and business life the ability of the young person to qualify well in the personal relations is of the highest importance.

To get on successfully, the young person must have the ability to approach others cleverly, and engage them in intelligent conversation. This is what many of our best pupils, as we have always termed them, are unable to do, because their training has been so exclusively identified with books. Even in the home, the standard of judging is not that of the school, it being the child that can please and serve that takes high rank there. We shall not for a moment consider the alternative of less sound scholarship, but we do insist that our young people get development in the personal relationships, so that they shall be strong as measured by the requirements of the world, not alone those of the school.

Personal Expression seeks to give a proper understanding of the ordinary personal relations, their importance and their universal application; and it strives to give a training which leads to the best exercise of those relations.

It takes cognizance of the well-known fact that many of our students who are capable in the standard school work, are conspicuously incapable when they are brought into personal relations with others. There is a lack of personality and conversational ability in many of our pupils that is distressing to contemplate. But the schools have done almost nothing in any direct way to meet this situation. Personal Expression was organized as a course of training to meet this manifest defect in the school training. It insists that there is a personal side to every pupil that needs development, and provides a laboratory, field-work training to give it. It is mindful of the fact that it is only through the reaction of minds in actual personal experience that efficiency in the personal relations can be acquired. It furthermore holds that the reaction of minds should not be simply between pupil and teacher, but between the pupil and his fellow pupils, and between the pupil and those outside the school circle.

The two avenues through which the personal relations find their best expression are the pleasing, forceful personality and good conversational ability. These are made the primary goals of personal expression. It develops personality through the cultivation of the various personal qualities and characteristics, and it trains in conversational facility through intelligent, well-directed long-continued exercise in the art of conversation. Ini-

tiative, poise, tact, good voice, good manners, alertness, both physical and mental, adaptability, personal kemptness, are among the elements of good personality which we seek to cultivate; and ease, skill, unity, and persistence the main elements in conversation.

The agencies employed by personal expression in developing personality and conversational ability are the following: (1) a large amount of group conversation work; (2) a large amount of field work; (3) the working out of assigned projects; (4) the study at first hand of the personality and conversational success of others; (5) the reading of the literature which relates directly to the purposes of the subject; (6) a limited number of instruction lessons.

The small conversation group is the unit for the conversational work, and to some extent the setting for the exercise of the various personal characteristics. At least one-half of all the personal expression activity turns about this unit, and the frequent changes in the conversation groups bring each pupil into personal touch with every other pupil of the class in a comparatively short time. The activities of the conversation group are so informal and cordial as to call out the fullest and best expression of which the pupil is capable. No other school agency brings pupils into such a spirit of comradeship, or the pupils and teacher into such sympathetic coöperation. In fact, comradeship and coöperation are key words in personal expression. The conversational group is ideal for leading out the timid, reserved pupils. The group is small, the setting informal, beside it is made the duty of the stronger pupils to aid the less strong. It is unfortunate that in so much of our school work the pupil must be confronted with the "I forbid." The pupil is told that he must not talk to his seatmate, he must not copy from another's notebook, he must not work out his problems or translation with others. But we have in the conversation group and in other phases of personal expression, in short in the development of the personal relations, the call for the fullest expression of the spirit of coöperation, and the full expression of the social instincts. Even boys and girls meet in the conversation groups on the basis of companionship, with no thought of the ultra-sentimental relations in their minds.

By field work is meant all of the out-of-class-room activities which put into practice the precepts of personal expression. The associations of the school, home, church, street, and shop give abundant opportunities to work out in actual experience the varied personal relationships. The world is so full of people and their activities that there is never a dearth of field material, and when pupils are assigned this work to do, they enter into it with zest, and make good progress in it. The field work, while required, is entirely informal and self-directed by the pupil. Reports are made in class from time to time as to the pupil's progress. The boy scout keeps himself alert to find some helpful service to render each day. The spirit of the field work calls for this same alertness on the part of the pupil.

The project is a particular type of the field work in which the teacher assigns to the pupil some definite task. For example, the pupil is asked to interview a business or professional man to get his views as to the most essential qualifications in an applicant for a position; or the pupil is asked to have a talk with an old person, or with a child under ten years; or the personal expression class as a whole gives a reception to another class. The general object in the project work is to develop adaptability and resourcefulness in the personal relationships.

The other three phases of personal expression are sufficiently designated by their names. While not so important as conversation and field work, the coördinate effectively with them, and are not to be lightly valued. The study of good personality and conversational ability in others has the same value as the study of good models in English or Art; and the reading of good books and the free classroom discussion prepare the pupil for the conversation field work aside of the subject, just as a study of the text in chemistry prepares for the laboratory phase of the subject.

But, you ask, can this result be achieved through the schools, can this personal side of the pupil be developed as we otherwise develop the pupil through school work? The answer without hesitation or reserve is in the affirmative. Recent experience has demonstrated that young people yield to training of the personal kind just as readily as to any other, and that the benefits which accrue to them are greater than those which result from much of their other school work.

Personal Expression logically connects itself with the English Department of instruction. English teachers for years have recognized the prime importance of getting their pupils to express themselves in a free, natural, informal manner. No other agency compares with the conversation group in accomplishing this aim, and while doing so, it gives the pupil efficiency in that form of expression, namely, conversation, which he will have constant occasion to use throughout his lifetime. The development of the personal characteristics which constitute good personality, connects itself equally well with the English Department.

It may be well at this point to distinguish personal expression from oral composition and public speaking, its two nearest of kin. The differences are fundamental. In personal expression the conversation group gives a social setting; several of the class, as many as there are groups, are talking at the same time; the work is distinctly on the coöperative basis; the timid or reserved pupil finds an easier approach to self-expression through the group exercise; the projects and field work bring the pupil into personal relations with those outside the school life; the medium of expression is conversation. The results of the training are as one could expect, very different from either the oral composition or the public speaking.

One year ago last October an experiment began in the Springfield, Missouri, High School to determine to what extent the personality and conversational ability of pupils could be developed. A section of third year English pupils, thirty in number, was selected for the experiment. Some of the pupils were excellent in their standing, a majority of them were average, and some seven or eight quite below the average. Some six or seven of these pupils were decidedly of the timid or reserved type. About forty per cent of the class were boys. The class on the whole was representative in most respects. The aims and general plan of Personal Expression were explained to the pupils of the class, who at once sensed the possibilities of the course. They readily admitted their need of the training proposed; they foresaw the benefits which would accrue to them in the social and business worlds, if the experiment should prove successful, and they entered with enthusiasm into the new work. The first drive, to use a war expression, was in the interest of the personal qualities.

How could we develop good personality if pupils continued careless and slouchy in their physical and mental attitude? Pupils must be alert, sit erect in their seats, stand erect when they stand, speak out in a good tone of voice, be ready at all times to say and do the right thing in the best way, otherwise our efforts would be vain. For eight months these pupils were under a régime of instruction and self-direction in their personal relations both in and out of school. Not more than two weeks after the work began the teacher said to me, "I notice a decided improvement in the class already, not only in the classroom, but in all their relations about the school." This improvement continued, I will add, throughout the year. When the conversational work began, the pupils were still further interested, and those of us in charge were much encouraged. Within a few weeks we knew that the experiment would succeed. Projects were assigned, and the field work set in motion. We expected to encounter difficulties, but they did not appear. The class continued twice a week till the end of the school year. At the middle of the year the other sections of Junior English voted unanimously to take Personal Expression the last half of the year, and six other high schools, including the McKinley High School of St. Louis, had the work during the same period.

I should hesitate to state to you frankly my impressions of the results achieved, if these impressions were not fully confirmed by those who were intimately identified with the work. To quote Miss Battle of the McKinley High School, "The results have been gratifying beyond my expectations." This states our experience in Springfield, the results were much better than any we had expected to see, both in the development of personality and conversational facility. Principal Miller of the McKinley High School says: "The pupils were practically unanimous in saying that it was the most interesting English class that they had ever been in." This also corresponds with our own observation. Our pupils enjoyed the work as they had never enjoyed English work before. Miss Ausherman of Springfield says: "It is a subject in which the pupils meet on the level of comrades, not rivals, all engrossed in the art of pleasing and helping each other. In my experience in teaching I have never found anything which I

consider the equal of personal expression in the ability to draw expression from the pupils."

Another teacher, Miss Sperry, says: "I have never taught anything else which is so live and interesting, and in which I feel that I can accomplish so much."

Even at the risk of raising doubt in your minds, I will state candidly my conclusions as to the results achieved by the original class in personal expression of the Springfield, Missouri, High School. (1) The pupils showed exceptional and increasing interest in the personal expression work; (2) Their faith in its benefits increased till the close of the year; (3) I have never known a class to be so happy in any other phase of school work; (4) I have never known another class that could compare favorably with this one in the exercise of the personal qualities—the class had a personality which no ordinary high school class ever shows; (5) The progress made by the pupils in the art of conversation was excellent; (6) The facial expression shown in the conversation work was the best I have ever seen in high school pupils; (7) The timid, reserved pupils developed surprisingly; (8) The growth of the social quality of the pupils was most interesting and satisfactory.

Given an informal, social setting, with good fellowship and helpful coöperation as accompaniments; the development of the finer personal qualities and good conversational ability as the goals; pupils interested and eager to achieve the goals; all under the direction of a competent teacher—why should not the results I have enumerated naturally follow?

## THE BROADER ASPECTS OF SPEECH TRAINING<sup>1</sup>

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and

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**T**HE fact is gradually coming to be recognized that something is radically wrong with our educational system when children are permitted to leave the public schools with their education presumably "finished" who can not speak their mother tongue with ease.

It is not clear where the fault lies, nor is the remedy plain; for attempts to help matters which have been made are of more interest for the direction in which they point than for the good which they have done. Oral English classes, each with its separate objective, and each with its distinct method of attack, point out, but do not fill, the need. Oratory and Public Speaking, both of which have the highest educational value, do not attempt to meet the needs of any but a restricted class. Dramatic classes and classes in Expression have value for their limited groups. But all of them leave untouched for the most part the great body of citizens for whom the institutions of democracy demand the correct use of the common language. Neither do the grades of the public schools attack this problem more wisely or with better results. Phonics as commonly taught is useless, or often fundamentally harmful, because it is taught with the needs of spelling and reading in mind rather than the needs of speech.

In discussing speech in its broader aspects it is necessary to outline, briefly, its development; for without an understanding of its genesis it is impossible to get clearly the point at which poor speech deviates from the normal and the consequent lines along which training for good speech should be directed.

Speech develops in response to the demands of the emotional life; and in the development of the emotional life of the young there are needs and wishes that run counter to the best good of

<sup>1</sup> Read at the annual convention of the National Council of Teachers of English, Chicago, December 1, 1917.

society. The young child is self-centered, and anti-social in his ideas of personal property and responsibility. These tendencies in his life are like a mighty river, they cannot be dammed up, they cannot be prohibited. Little by little society—in the form of parent, sister, brother, playmate, teacher—directs and guides this torrent, with here a bulwark—there a breakwater, until it is made to serve the great social purposes for which it was designed. But it is obvious that many of us, indeed the greater number of us, do not conform in every way. The torrent of our emotional lives does not cling to the newly evolved channel. Eddies and backwaters form, tiny rivulets break through which are only perceived by the casual observer in what he calls "nervousness."

Speech, created in response to these conditions, is a thermometer of the progress and stability of the personal adjustment and growth of the individual. Therefore a defect of speech can no more be called the illness and treated as such, than temperature can be called typhoid. The underlying causes must be studied and the point considered at which the individual broke with social demands, just as, when temperature manifests itself, the possible sources of infection are to be surveyed. For this reason a knowledge of the construction of the language is of no less value to the person who undertakes the correction of speech troubles, *and no more*, than a view of the surrounding country is to the sanitary engineer.

There are certain types of defects, seen in a large percentage of those people who have an arrest or retrogression of the mental development, which do not conform to this rule. In many of these cases it can be concluded that the individual simply has not the intelligence requisite to learn and reproduce speech. But even here it is quite probable that often the defect is due primarily to the inability of the individual to adapt himself in his emotional life; and the difficulty of this task may in turn be due either to his lack of mental power or to the same causes which effect the adaptation of the mentally normal.

Just as in the newer conception of insanity there is no clear line between the sound and the unsound mind, so in the field of defective speech there is no inelastic structure which obligingly divides the world into those who have healthy and those who

have unhealthy types of speech reaction. Defects grade logically, therefore, all the way from conditions common to the usual voice at some time, to conditions obviously pathological—from harsh voice, for instance, through a long list to the nervous illness known as stuttering.

If you will permit us to make a rough division of defects of speech we shall say that there are defects of tone and defects of coördination. This division is purely for convenience in discussion as there is a large overlapping. Under TONE there is (1st) harsh voice, varying from a very slight and only occasional to an extremely and constantly harsh condition; (2nd) high pitched, which in its extreme is falsetto; (3rd) the guttural and hoarse tone, which has become the stage voice of the emotionally mal-adjusted, anti-social "tough" of the "crook" play; (4th) lack of change of pitch and lack of inflection, which is commonly called monotonous, either in the speaking or the singing voice, and which is one of the most serious of defects from the viewpoint of the diagnostitian and the re-educator; (5th) lack of volume, which is of value as a diagnostic aid to the general physician also; and (6th) faulty resonance, or what for lack of a better term we call colorless voice.

Thus under TONE will be found six defects which range and vary with the physical and emotional health of the individual.

In the field of CO-ORDINATION we find three large and overlapping divisions: (1st) the omission or substitution of the letter sounds, i. e., lalling, lipping, and related conditions, many of which have a physical basis in malformations and poor denition, (2nd) thick and slurring speech, amply illustrated in the speech of persons whose nervous centers have been depressed by alcohol, fevers, or infections, and common with those of defective mental development; (3rd) lack of smoothness in the speech-flow which varies all the way from an over frequent use of "and ah" or "ehr ah" in the cases of lack of attention and stage fright, to poor phrasing, and finally to the more serious stuttering. Stuttering, here, is used to include stammering, as the genesis of both is probably the same.

It is obvious that the training needed to deal with this large and shifting field of personal adaptation as it manifests itself in speech, is a profession in itself. It can no more merely be added

to the field of the English teacher than to that of the History teacher or for that matter the teacher of Physical Education or the School Nurse who teaches Social Hygiene. All educational fields overlap, since they all look to the development of the individual and the fitting of him to meet social demands, but they do not, therefore, become any the less different fields of educational endeavor.

The training for corrective work rightly comes under the supervision of the departments of speech (whatever its name) where the machinery is already organized for dealing with speech conditions. Some of our departments have been, some are being, reorganized along the broadest lines and for such the name of Department of Public Speaking does not express their full activities as they have to do with both the sciences and arts of speech, both public and private.

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But there are ways in which the English teacher with only a little additional training can become extremely useful in the realm of speech production, that is, in a greater knowledge of the application of mental hygiene to speech. The teacher should be able to diagnose timidity, even if it comes as a lamb in wolf's clothing (to reverse the fable) disguised as the over-bold and the ever-talking. She must know the best way to deal with "negative suggestability" the victim of which is always doing not only the opposite of what you wish him to do but of what he wants to do, himself. She must know what is indicated by abnormal fears, such as the fears of audiences, thunderstorms, etc.; and of abnormal anger, which is related to epilepsy. Further she must know what is indicated by a lack of attention which often, unfortunately, is treated as a social sin, rather than the illness which it frequently is; and by poor association of ideas, and by poverty of the imagination.

The person who is to have the direction of youth for even a short period must have some definite information about the hygiene of sex. She must be able to see and meet a lack of adaptation on the part of the pupil, to the life of the schoolroom. She must perceive and re-direct any indication of the homo-sexual trends which show themselves in "crushes" with other pupils or teachers of the same sex. She must know that in the age of adol-

escence lack of love for the opposite sex is neither normal or desirable. She must discourage prudishness as well as "showing off." But the teacher fails in the greatest of all opportunities who does not know how to utilize and not to abuse, the love of the pupil for the teacher of the opposite sex.

In the field of Speech Hygiene, direct, some comprehension of the part played by example in the attaining of correct speech is essential. The lisping teacher cannot teach the child the correct letter positions when she, herself, cannot make them. Invariably the lisping teacher is more hindrance than help to the growing child, whose speech habits are not yet set, and this, no matter how great her erudition and her ability to teach things other than speech. Nor is the lisping teacher the only offender. A low, well-modulated voice which has, at the same time the carrying qualities necessary to the schoolroom is not an impossible attainment to the person who is willing to put the same attention and energy to its acquisition that is required for many another art which she undertakes gladly. The value of such an accomplishment would be infinite, not only to the personal life of the teacher but also to the developing speech sense of the pupil.

But the teacher does not know the fundamental necessities of speech who has not some knowledge of the laws and development of the coördinations of the muscles and of the development of the motor centers. For instance, this knowledge will restrain her when she is tempted to try to "slip up on the brain-centers" so to speak, and try to re-educate the left-handed individual in order to make him conform to her ideals of schoolroom order and uniformity. For further discussion of this, see Terman's chapters on Speech Defects, page 335, in his excellent book on the *Hygiene of the School Child*. But standing, perhaps, highest in value comes the fine art of tact and consideration for the person who possesses a defect of speech and a courteous refrain from the use of derision, discipline, and scolding as a supposed method of cure.

\* \* \* \* \*

The field of preventive speech work broadens. Training for normal speech is the right not only of those who have defective speech but also those with normal speech who will be sent, in the course of time, from our public school system to face the reali-

ties of life. The speech habits do not approximate the adult standard until the age of eight or nine. They are not set types of reaction until the adolescent period is past and the correct habits must be formed in those years when the plastic brain and body of the individual are most amenable to training.

Exercises, plays, games for the early grades, paralleling the work given in the colleges and universities is being devised and will soon be published. For we realize that the speech habits must be so set by correct practice, that no illness, no emotional crisis, no spiritual upset in the life of the individual can weaken them. The control of the emotional output through the control of its expression is of direct educative value. Training for speech is the training for life, and this will become more clearly apparent as education comes to mean less the acquiring of knowledge, and more the healthy adjustment to necessarily changing conditions.

## NATIONAL DEFENSE AND PUBLIC SPEAKING<sup>1</sup>

GLENN N. MERRY

University of Iowa, Chairman of the Iowa National Council of Defense  
Speakers' Bureau

THE people of Pompeii realized the presence of Vesuvius. They knew from the occasional mutterings that terror might some day engulf the land. But they made little preparation nor would they allow themselves to anticipate the truth. We have known intellectual Germany. We have known of "blood and iron" Prussianism. But the truth we have minimized and evaded. The mutterings of militarism we could not believe in, and we have continued to pronounce peace orations declaring that the commercial interests of the nations were too complicated to permit another great war and that even if one should break down these barriers for a time the war could not possibly continue for more than six months. Fine perorations have proclaimed the coronation of the Christ of the Andes over all the World with the reign of "Peace on Earth, good will toward men." No one of us would retract what he has said in his peace speeches, but all of us will agree that only the good will toward men remains. The volcano has broken forth and the blackest of barbarities have been rained down upon armed and unarmed humanity. Like the civilization of Pompeii ours was taken unawares; but unlike it, we shall not be engulfed.

For many months the United States attempted neutrality. But in the face of aggression heaped upon aggression and insult upon insult, we were finally forced to abandon our neutrality. To some few this may have seemed undesirable but to the great bulk of American people the declaration of war came none too soon. However, I do not believe that all the patriotic people of America understand even yet the full significance of the facts that forced us into the conflict. These Americans are loyal and caught by the enthusiasm of the crowd are doing their bit and some their best. But I have met the inquiry in many forms during the last three months: never in public, of course, but in the privacy of

<sup>1</sup>This paper was read at the annual meeting of the National Association of Teachers of Speech in Chicago, December 27, 1917.

confidential conversation: why have we transgressed that pristine injunction—have “entangling alliances with none!” and not required Europe to settle its own problems; why did we not prohibit Americans from traveling the seas near the war zone: why did we send our troops abroad when our country was not threatened with invasion? I think all speakers on most all occasions should deal with these doubts. Let interrogation meet interrogation. Is not some of Europe’s trouble our own trouble? We no longer are a child nation isolated from Europe by three months of sea travel. Liverpool is no farther today from New York than San Francisco. Proof to this audience of our many interests bound up in the cause of the allies is unnecessary. We are a grown nation, a powerful factor in peace or in war with world interests and mature responsibilities. Like Gareth’s mother our timid and uncertain friends admonished,

“Stay, my son! Ye are yet more boy than man.”

But all America may well reply in that response Gareth made to his mother,

“Man am I grown, a man’s work must I do.

Live pure, speak true, right wrong, follow the King—Else, wherefore born?” \*

I think most Americans have abstained from pleasure trips near the war zone since the submarine campaign has been rife. But what shall we reply to those whose business demanded such travel? Does citizenship in the United States mean no protection? Must I crouch hidden in my domestic harbor unprotected by my flag because a bully is parading the streetway of the seas? How vividly the impossibility of the situation was brought home to us by Mr. Hoy of this city, when, after the death of his mother and sister enroute to England on the *Laconia*, he cabled President Wilson, last February:

“I am an American citizen, representing the Sullivan Machinery Co., of Chicago, living abroad not as an expatriate but for the promotion of American trade.

I love the flag, believing in its significance.

(\* This usage was suggested by a speech I heard delivered in Des Moines December 15, 1917, by President Charles W. Flint of Cornell College, Mt. Vernon, Iowa.)

My beloved mother and sister, passengers of the *Laconia*, have been foully murdered on the high seas.

As an American citizen, outraged—and as such fully within my rights—as an American son and brother, bereaved, I call upon the government to preserve its citizen's self-respect and save others of my countrymen from such deep grief as I now feel.

I am of military age, ready to fight.

If my country can use me against these brutal assassins I am at its call.

If it stultifies my manhood and my nation's by remaining passive under outrage, I shall seek a man's chance under another flag.\*

From the day of the sinking of the *Lusitania*, the war with Germany was inevitable. It is better to join our troops with those who have so long been fighting our common battle than to allow a compromise tolerant of the perpetual menace to the future peace of the world of a rule which calls sacred treaties "scraps of paper," which declares there "is no international law," and which knows no human decency.

I read this month a distinction between the two civilizations. On the front page of a Chicago paper was the headline, "American soldier assaults a French woman." At first I was appalled. Is such war after all, I reflected. But I read further and thanked God for what I read when the paragraph said, "He was immediately tried by court martial and shot at sunrise."

We must win this war; the responsibility is on us to preserve the ideals that have been challenged as it was upon those of '76 or '61. And we shall win or sacrifice our all. I have lived to see this determination demonstrated and I believe it. My students have not been allowed to declaim the last paragraph of Patrick Henry's great speech. I have not believed the average student's range of emotions should prostitute that noble sentiment which weighed in the balances Liberty and death. It was declaimed in my class this fall with deepest fervor and shortly there was a vacant chair; the speaker was numbered among those of the cantonments.

What part can we play in the program of voluntary centralization? I say first that all of our deliberations at this meeting should and will be seriously and solemnly earnest. There is not

(\*London, February 27, 1917. Austin Y. Hoy.)

one of us here that has made the trip without considerable sacrifice; sacrifice of time involving the postponement or neglect, possibly, of important duties, as well as sacrifice of money. And we are patriotic in the degree that to each one of us this sacrifice proves to be an economy. Profiteering and treason have been called twin Iscariots. How shall we classify useless ideas, narrow hobbies, and talk for talk's sake in this convention or elsewhere? I do not see my brother, you do not see your brother or son this vacation time because the government seeks to reduce congestion in transportation. Some organizations like the American Bar Association, I am told, have postponed their annual gatherings one year to accord with this policy of the government. I believe a duty rests upon us to justify, as I feel sure we shall justify, this meeting. For we realize as possibly we have realized never before the necessity of continuing our public schools, colleges, and universities. May we not leave this association better teachers because of the definiteness of our deliberations and the inspiration of this impelling motive? May we not define the practicable and drop the inexpedient for the war time year that is ahead of us; for the times call the teacher who can teach to the duties of **the classroom and the research professor** to the revelations of the laboratory with the stern command, "Produce, produce!"

But to those who have the preference there is a call to service outside the classroom that is not less important where we may justify as well as put into practice the principles we have stood for in public speaking. The public is not yet awakened to its full responsibility in the war, especially in the rural districts and parts of our large cities peopled with foreigners. I know from first hand information that there is much along these lines of patriotic education yet to be done in my own state and I am not willing to admit that there is less in any other state. The nation has responded wonderfully to the calls that have been made upon it. But statistics show that only the few rather than the many in numerous instances have shouldered this responsibility. The day will likely come when every man and woman must give of money, time, or life. Charles Edward Russell of the Root Commission to Russia said to a group of us here in Chicago a few days ago that **the soldier in the trenches is a paramount necessity**;

but that back of him must be a united national mind inspired and moved by a common purpose. To the public speakers of America he emphasized that the charge was given to accomplish this in no small degree, that we have a great opportunity and with it a solemn responsibility. History verifies his words. It was a Phillipic that warned Greece of her greatest foe. It was the spoken truth that purged another great civilization of its Catiline. Webster's reply to Hayne probably deferred the Civil War thirty years. A youth's speech in Faneuil Hall aroused Boston to its recreant citizens. It was a speech, yes, a precious bit of literature, delivered on the battle field of Gettysburg that clarified the issues and set forth in phrases breathing the life of hope to the peoples of the world, for "government of the *people*, *by* the people, *for* the people shall not perish from the earth." For years we have been teaching this eloquence from the lips of men who moulded the life of their day and generations. And now in the present hour again it is the spoken word of our President that gives us our shibboleth, "Make the world safe for Democracy." Our part as speakers will be less conspicuous, no doubt, but it will serve the collective ideal, none the less.

I hope your experience was not my experience last spring when the presidents of our respective institutions requested each department head to state what his department could contribute that they might in turn offer to the government for national defense. When my letter came, I was perplexed, I was stumped. We had been talking so much in America and had done so little that I replied after considerable reflection. "My job is to teach people to talk. I think we have had enough talking, that it is time to do something. I am therefore able to offer nothing." My vision was indeed small. My experience with others at the Speakers' Training Camp at Chautauqua Lake during the first week in July demonstrated this clearly. There we saw the splendid service a member of this Association had rendered as a specialist. We became acquainted with the Four Minute Men Movement, speakers for the government in motion picture theaters. A nation-wide campaign for carrying the gospel of patriotism was initiated. I returned to my state to work and have been busy ever since.

The general defense of the nation is being built up by the government's officials. But closely allied to the government as an advisory board of citizens is the National Council of Defense. This is subdivided into state councils and each has its speaker's bureau. In many of our states, college and university professors are giving material assistances to these bureaus.

The campaign of public speaking under the auspices of the government is being carried on by two departments, the Speaking Division and the Four Minute Men, both supervised by the cabinet through the Committee on Public Information. Arthur E. Bestor, who for many years has been prominently identified with the Chautauqua Institution is in charge of the Speaking Division. His duty is to coördinate the speaking campaigns of the various state councils and to furnish speakers either of national influence and reputation or speakers who are specialists along certain lines for the interstate conferences and tours.

I have the following telegram, a message to the Association, which I have just received from Mr. Bestor.

The Government needs the service of the National Association of Public Speaking Teachers in attaining that universal education absolutely necessary for the winning of the war, for in a democracy fullness of information and intelligent participation by each citizen is essential and this can be effectively secured only through the spoken word.

ARTHUR E. BESTOR,  
Director of Speaking Division  
Committee on Public Information.

Of the Four Minute Men Division, William McCormick Blair of Chicago is director. This public speaking organization is as unique as it has been effective. The movement had its inception in this city in June, chiefly through the efforts of Mr. Donald Ryerson. It was very soon taken over by the Government and organized in every state. The number of Four Minute speakers enrolled up to last week exceeded 20,000. The movement is an ideal one. The motion picture managers of America to a man are back of the work and welcome the speakers who on their honor do not exceed the four minute time limit. Someone remarked to me in jest, recently, that if the war taught speakers to say something in four minutes and then stop it will not be in

vain. The possibilities of this movement are at once apparent. The audience is automatically provided. The theme is of universal interest. The speakers receive bi-monthly their topics from Washington together with bulletin of facts and information upon which the busy clerk, professional man, or other class of volunteer speaker can quickly assemble a speech. President Wilson has placed his most cordial support behind the Four Minute Men and last month sent them the following message:

May I not express my very real interest in the vigorous and intelligent work your organization is doing in connection with the Committee on Public Information? It is surely a matter worthy of sincere appreciation that a body of thoughtful citizens, with the hearty coöperation of the managers of moving picture theaters, are engaged in the presentation and discussion of the purposes and measures of these critical days.

Men and nations are at their worst or at their best in any great struggle. The spoken word may light the fires of passion and unreason or it may inspire to highest action and noblest sacrifice a nation of freemen. Upon you Four-Minute Men, who are charged with a special duty and enjoy a special privilege in the command of your audiences, will rest in a considerable degree, the task of arousing and informing the great body of our people so that when the record of these days is complete we shall read page for page with the deeds of army and navy the story of the unity, the spirit of sacrifice, the unceasing labors, the high courage of the men and women at home who held unbroken the inner lines. My best wishes and continuing interest are with you in your work as part of the reserve officer corps in a nation thrice armed because through your efforts it knows better the justice of its cause and the value of what it defends.

Cordially and sincerely yours,

WOODROW WILSON.

I believe that the public speaker has a definite service to perform in this great struggle as a part of the nation's defense. I believe that this association should, as it likely will, pass resolutions of loyalty and support and forward them to the National Council of Defense and the Speaking Division of the Government. I hope the Association will see fit to create a standing war committee through which we may assist in our organized capacity

to help in a small way to win this war, for surely we have a potential influence, else wherefore born? There is work which such a committee might do such as to criticize constructively the numerous speakers handbooks that are appearing now, or better to issue one ourselves in conjunction with some organization that could finance the project. I believe an accumulative bibliography of the best speeches delivered in this epoch of the world's development should be collected, classified for class use as argumentative, expository, or hortatory and persuasive, and printed in the *QUARTERLY JOURNAL*. There are other details which the time is too short to mention and ideas that you think of which ought to be referred to such a committee.

Shall we individually and collectively pledge our best to the one great duty before us in comparison with which all else is insignificant, the seeing of this job through? In the words of our Commander-in-chief:

"For us there is but one choice. We have made it. Woe be to the man or group of men that seeks to stand in our way in this day of high resolution, when every principle we hold dearest is to be vindicated and made secure for the salvation of the nations. We are ready to plead at the bar of history, and our flag shall wear a new luster. Once more we shall make good with our lives and fortunes the great faith to which we were born, and a new glory shall shine in the face of our people."

*By E. C. F. Schreiner*  
*as told on pp 63 - Vol 6 (1960) 63*

<sup>1</sup> Chap. LIII.

a clear, logical, and forceful style. After a determination of what to include and what not to include under style, the first question to arise is, how many and what kinds of style are there.

Cicero says<sup>8</sup> there are nearly as many kinds of oratory as there are orators; that language may possess purity, power dignity, politeness and wit, humour, pleasantry, gravity, and gayety. Style may be refined and polished, energetic, weighty and copious, bold, vehement, full of energy and action, fortified and guarded, spirited, acute, explicit, dwelling upon every circumstance, pursuing with eagerness, terrifying, supplicating, or varying in language. Aristotle, however, limits his division of style to the kinds of Rhetoric,<sup>9</sup> literary, political, forensic, and epideictic.

On the matter of the propriety of style the Greek and the Roman are nearer to agreement. Although Cicero is not so scientific in his analysis, he is less abstract in his exposition. Cicero seems to have the point of view of the practiced speaker while Aristotle has that of the observer and philosopher. These two passages exemplify the chief differences between the two men on style and are worth quoting at length. Cicero says;<sup>10</sup> 'It is, however, clear that no single kind of style can be adapted to every cause, or every audience, or every person, or every occasion. For capital causes require one style of speaking, private and inferior causes another; deliberations require one kind of oratory, panegyric another, judicial proceedings another, common conversation another, consolation another, reproof another, disputation another, historical narrative another. It is of consequence also to consider who form the audience, whether the senate, or the people, or the judges; whether it is a large or small assembly, or a single person, and of what character; it ought to be taken into account, too, who the speakers themselves are, of what age, rank, and authority; and the time, also, whether it be one of peace or war, of hurry or leisure. On this head, therefore, no direction seems possible to be given but this, that we adopt a character of style, fuller, plainer, or middling, suited to the subject on which we are to speak; the same ornaments we may use almost constantly, but sometimes in a higher, sometimes in a lower strain; and it is the part of art and nature to be able

<sup>8</sup> Chaps. VII, VIII, IX.

<sup>9</sup> Chap. XII.

<sup>10</sup> Chap. LV.

to do what is becoming on every occasion; to *know* what is becoming, and when, is an affair of judgment.'

Compare this passage with Aristotle;<sup>11</sup> 'The conditions of propriety in a speech are that the style should be emotional and ethical, and *at the same time* proportionate to the subject-matter. By a proportionate style I mean that the manner of the composition should not be slovenly if the subject is pompous, or dignified if it is humble; and that there should be no ornamental epithets attached to unimportant words. . . . This appropriateness of language is one means of giving an air of probability to the case, as the minds of the audience draw a wrong inference of the speaker's truthfulness from the similarity of their own feelings in similar circumstances, and are thus led to suppose that the facts are as he represents them, even if this is not really so. It should be added that a listener is always in sympathy with an emotional speaker, even though what he says is wholly worthless. This is the reason why a good many speakers try to overwhelm the audience by their clamour. This method of proof depending on *external* signs is ethical, as the appropriate characteristics are assigned to any particular class or moral state. I understand under "class" the different periods of life, boyhood, manhood, and old age, *the sexes*, male and female, or nationalities . . . ; and under "moral states" such as determine the character of a person's life, as it is not every such state which influences the characters of lives. If then the words which the speaker uses are also appropriate to the moral state, he will produce this ethical effect; for there will be a difference both in the language and in the pronunciation of a clown and an educated person. . . .

'The question of opportuneness or inopportuneness in the use of any rhetorical device is one that belongs equally to all the species of Rhetoric.' Consequently, 'if a tender subject is expressed in harsh language or a harsh subject in tender language, there is a certain loss of persuasiveness.'

But how is the unseasoned orator, the beginner ambitious to become an effective speaker, to acquire style? Can style be taught, or is it a thing that comes without direct attention as a result of practice, and an evidence of the genius of the particular man? Aristotle says nothing explicit about the acquisition of

<sup>11</sup> Pp. 245 ff.

style, while Cicero, although realizing that there is great diversity of style, points out that instruction in style can be given, without necessarily producing a resemblance in the oratorical style of the pupils of the same teacher.<sup>12</sup> He would also have the orator learn by imitation by copying 'the chief excellencies' of the model,<sup>13</sup> although this is not absolutely necessary, as many orators have attained what they desire by their own natural powers.<sup>14</sup> Eloquence of language is likewise augmented by reading the orators and poets,<sup>15</sup> for the 'poet is nearly allied to the orator.'<sup>16</sup> Aristotle, on the other hand, maintains that the styles of prose and poetry are distinct.<sup>17</sup>

In regard to the importance of style Aristotle and Cicero seem to disagree. Aristotle, while appreciating the use of style, apparently had little regard for it as such. Cicero, however, as an experienced orator, knew its effectiveness first hand, and emphasizes the importance of adequate instruction in the use of words. Aristotle, with the point of view of the philosopher, maintains<sup>18</sup> that the matter is the important thing. Cicero, however, says<sup>19</sup> that the manner of saying a thing is the more important and deserving of the highest praise. Style is the department in which 'the divine power and excellence of the orator is seen; I mean in delivering what is to be said with elegance, copiousness, and variety of language.'<sup>20</sup>

Leaving these general considerations of style, we shall pass to the fundamental requisities of all good style, purity of language and clearness of expression. Cicero regards purity of language as necessary to the orator;<sup>21</sup> and assumes that every orator possesses the ability to speak in pure Latin. He says;<sup>22</sup> 'Let us pass over the rules for speaking the Latin tongue in its purity; which the teaching given to children conveys, which refined knowledge and method in study, or the habit of daily and

<sup>12</sup> Chap. IX.

<sup>13</sup> Chap. XXII, Bk. II.

<sup>14</sup> Bk. II Chap. XXIII.

<sup>15</sup> Chap. X.

<sup>16</sup> Bk. II Chap. XVI.

<sup>17</sup> P. 227.

<sup>18</sup> P. 226.

<sup>19</sup> Chap. XIV.

<sup>20</sup> Bk. II, Chap. XXVII.

<sup>21</sup> Chap. X.

<sup>22</sup> Chap. XIII.

domestic conversation cherishes, and which books and the reading of the ancient orators and poets confirm.'

Aristotle also says that purity of language is 'the basis of style';<sup>23</sup> but he goes into more detail. He divides purity of language into five parts; proper use of connecting words or clauses, use of specific terms, avoidance of ambiguous terms, the classification of nouns generically, and number.

To Cicero perspicuity, like purity of language, is fundamental, and ability to express one's self clearly may be assumed in speaking of eloquence.<sup>24</sup> He says;<sup>25</sup> 'Nor let us dwell long upon that other point, so as to discuss by what means we may succeed in making what we say understood; an object which we shall doubtless effect by speaking good Latin, adopting words in common use, and such as aptly express what we wish to communicate or explain, without any ambiguous word or phrase, not making our sentences too long, nor making such observations as are drawn from other subjects, for the sake of comparison, too prolix; avoiding all incoherency of thought, reversion of the order of time, all confusion of persons, all irregularity of arrangement whatever.'

Aristotle is not so clear on the question of perspicuity. His remarks are scattered. Apparently, however, that part of his discussion which deals with this subject is missing, for we find on page 228, not preceded by a discussion of perspicuity, the conclusion: 'We may rest content then with our study of that question, and may take as settled that one virtue of style is perspicuity.' His scattered remarks on perspicuity are few. He says, page 228; 'Our speech, unless it make its meaning clear, will fail to perform its proper function.' And again; 'Perspicuity is produced by such [nouns and verbs] as are proper *or usual*.' On page 231 he says that lucidity is a virtue of rhetorical speech, 'as we have seen.' He also says on page 231 that metaphors convey perspicuity. At the bottom of page 243 we have; 'You become obscure, if in seeking to introduce a number of details in the middle of a sentence you do not complete the sense before you mention them.'

Perhaps the most important element in style is the choice and arrangement of words. But Cicero also speaks of the construc-

<sup>23</sup> P. 241.

<sup>24</sup> Chap. X.

<sup>25</sup> Chap. XIII.

tion of words.<sup>26</sup> 'Such words as our modern mode of speaking does not admit may be used as ornament, but sparingly.'<sup>27</sup> The harmony of words must be considered, which 'method introduces, learning teaches, practice in reading and speaking confirms.'<sup>28</sup> The kinds of words<sup>29</sup> are proper and fixed names, metaphorical words, and invented words. Proper words should not be mean nor obsolete, but rather choice and ornamental, such that 'have in them fulness and force of sound.' Unusual words are 'allowed more freely to poetical license . . . ; yet a poetical word gives occasionally dignity also to oratory.' New words are formed either by joining words together, or they are 'invented, without composition.' Metaphors will be considered further on. In Chapter LII Cicero says; 'You should not imagine there is anything else to be done by the orator, at least anything else to produce a striking and admirable effect, than to observe these three rules with regard to single words; to use frequently *metaphorical* ones, sometimes *new* ones, and rarely very old ones.'

Aristotle in discussing nouns and verbs refers to his *Poetics*. In the *Rhetoric* he says<sup>30</sup> perspicuity is produced by such words as are proper or usual. But variation in the use of words imparts greater dignity to style. Foreign words should be used because people admire most what they know least. But he qualifies this on page 230; 'It is only seldom and in few places that we must make use of rare or foreign words, compound words or words *specially invented for the occasion*,' because 'they constitute too wide a departure from propriety.' On page 230, 231 he says; 'It is only the proper and the special name of a thing and the metaphor that are suited to the style of prose composition.' This goes a bit further than Cicero, but taken in connection with his other remarks coincides with Cicero's notion. Words which have several meanings are serviceable to a sophist, while synonyms are serviceable to a poet.<sup>31</sup> 'The beauty of a noun . . . and similarly its ugliness, resides either in the sound or in the sense.'<sup>32</sup> Besides these scattered remarks on words there are a

<sup>26</sup> Bk. I, Chap. V.

<sup>27</sup> Chap. X.

<sup>28</sup> Chap. XI.

<sup>29</sup> Chaps. XXXVII, XXXVIII, XLIII.

<sup>30</sup> P. 228.

<sup>31</sup> P. 231.

<sup>32</sup> P. 234.

few observations on epithets and diminutives. His principal comment<sup>33</sup> cautions us to observe the mean between extremes in the use of epithets and diminutives. Four faults of taste occur in the use of words: first, from the use of compound words; second, in the use of rare words; third, in the misuse of epithets; and fourth, in the use of metaphors.

In the *Poetics* the treatment of words is more systematic.<sup>34</sup> There Aristotle considers the ultimate letter, or element; the primary combination of ultimate elements; the connective particle; the separate particle; the noun; the verb; the inflection; and the speech. Nouns are of two kinds, simple or compound. Whatever the formation, the noun is either a current term, a strange word, a metaphor, an ornamental word, a newly coined word, a lengthened word, a curtailed word, or an altered word.

Words in composition, according to Cicero,<sup>35</sup> principally require collocation, and a certain modulation and form. The composition should be compact and smooth. The language must be coherent and flow equally and smoothly.

Aristotle treats words in composition from the point of view of sentence structure.<sup>36</sup> The style must be either jointed or compact. The jointed sentence has no end but 'the completion of the subject under discussion.' The compact style is the periodic; but it is not clear that he means the same as our modern periodic style. He defines a 'period' as 'a sentence having a beginning and an end in itself, and a magnitude which admits of being easily comprehended at a glance.' A period may be either simple or divided into members or clauses, but should always be complete in itself.

By the modulation of words, Cicero really means the casting of the composition into rhythm, and composing the sentence in such periods as may be easily 'rounded forth in one breath.'<sup>37</sup> Both writers discuss the various kinds of rhythm, and both agree that while there should be rhythm in prose, it is not to be so pronounced as to resemble verse. Cicero says, in Chapter XLVIII; 'Prose has a more free scope, and is plainly . . . unconfined, yet not that it may fly off or wander without control.

<sup>33</sup> P. 236.

<sup>34</sup> Pp. 68 ff.

<sup>35</sup> Chap. XLIII.

<sup>36</sup> P. 251.

<sup>37</sup> Chap. XLVII.

but may regulate itself without being absolutely in fetters.' The conclusions of the periods should receive the more attention,<sup>38</sup> as they are noticed more.

Aristotle says, page 248 ff.: 'The structure of style should be neither metrical nor wholly unrythmical. If it is the former, it lacks persuasiveness from its appearance of artificiality, and at the same time diverts the mind of the audience from the subject by fixing their attention upon the return of the similar cadence. . . . If on the other hand the composition is wholly unrythmical, it has no definiteness, whereas it ought to be definitely limited, although not by metre. . . . Hence a prose composition should have rhythm but not metre, or it will be a poem. But the rhythm should not be elaborately finished, or in other words it should not be carried too far.'

It is worthy of note that in the passage on rhythm Cicero misquotes Aristotle. In Chapter XLVII, Cicero says; 'Your favourite Aristotle, Catulus, inclines to banish from oratorical language the frequent use of the iambus and the trochee; which, however, fall of themselves naturally into our common discourse and conversation; but the strokes of time in those numbers are remarkable, and the feet short. He therefore principally invites us to the heroic measure, . . . in which we may proceed with impunity two feet only, or a little more, lest we plainly fall into verse, or the resemblance of verse.' Now, Aristotle does not invite us to the heroic measure. On the other hand he says, page 249; 'The heroic rhythm is too dignified, and is deficient in conversational quality.' And again, page 250; 'While the other rhythms should be discarded . . . the paean should be adopted in *prose composition*, as it is the only one of the rhythms named which cannot form a regular metre and is therefore the most likely to escape detection'; which means nothing less than that we are not invited to use the heroic metre.

And now we come to what Cicero considers<sup>39</sup> 'the greatest glory of eloquence; . . . to exaggerate a subject by embellishment.' In various places throughout his work he refers to the necessity of and devices for embellishment.<sup>40</sup> While embellishment is not confined to any particular portion of the speech, yet

<sup>38</sup> Chap. L.

<sup>39</sup> Chap. XXVI.

<sup>40</sup> Chaps. VI, XXVI, XXVII, Bk. II, Chaps. XII, XXIX.

the flowers of language should be diffused 'at such intervals, that, as in the arrangement of ornaments, there may be certain remarkable and luminous objects disposed here and there.'<sup>41</sup> The end in view is to interest the audience, not only to delight, but to delight without satiety. The most ornate speeches are those that have a wealth of illustration, brought from the widest fields to bear upon the question in hand.<sup>42</sup> In Chapters LII, LIII, and LIV Cicero gives a long list of figures, and devices for embellishing a speech, which is too long to be included here, and to which the reader is referred.

While Cicero devotes so much space to embellishment, Aristotle has nothing to say of ornamentation and embellishment as such, perhaps because he considers, 'strict justice indeed, if applicable to Rhetoric, would confine itself to seeking such a delivery as would cause neither pain nor pleasure. For the right condition is that the battle should be fought out on the facts of the case alone; and therefore everything outside the *direct* proof is *really* superfluous.'<sup>43</sup> However, we may gather from what he says that he considers the chief excellences, the best ornaments of composition to be perspicuity, propriety, and dignity. We have already considered perspicuity and propriety under separate heads, so it remains only to treat of the dignity of style.

The causes which contribute to dignity of style are:<sup>44</sup> to use a definition instead of the simple name of a thing; where the subject is one that is foul or indecorous, if the foulness lies in the definition, to use the name, and if in the name, to use the definition; to use metaphors and epithets; to put the plural for the singular; not to combine two cases by a single article; to use connecting particles; to describe a thing by attributes it does not possess.

The metaphor still remains to be considered. Both Cicero and Aristotle agree that the metaphor and allied figures are important. In Chapters XXXIX through XLII Cicero treats of this phase of style. He defines a metaphor as 'a brief similitude contracted into a single word; which word being put in the place of another, as if it were in its own place, conveys, if the resem-

<sup>41</sup> Chap. XXV.

<sup>42</sup> Chap. XXX.

<sup>43</sup> P. 226.

<sup>44</sup> P. 244, 245.

blance be acknowledged, delight; if there is no resemblance, it is condemned.' But he also says that a metaphor may consist of more than one word. The metaphor should make the subject clearer, or more significant. Brevity may be the purpose of a metaphor. Uncommon metaphors are the most charming, if used with judgment. The resemblance must not be far-fetched, and all offensiveness to the senses is to be avoided. The metaphor should not be grander nor meaner than the subject, nor more confined than the proper term. Metaphors may be softened by prefixed words. The position of the metaphor should also appear natural. The interchange of proper names, or the use of the virtue or vice for the person possessing it, or metonymy, are ornamental figures.

Aristotle, for a treatment of the metaphor refers us again to the *Poetics*. The metaphor is important in prose, according to Aristotle,<sup>45</sup> because it is dependent upon few aids. The metaphor gives perspicuity, pleasure, and an air of strangeness.<sup>46</sup> The speaker must depend upon his own originality for his metaphors.<sup>46</sup> Metaphors must be appropriate.<sup>46</sup> Superior metaphors exalt a subject, while inferior ones disparage it.<sup>47</sup> But it should not be far-fetched.<sup>48</sup> Metaphors may be derived from enigmas.<sup>49</sup> 'The sources from which metaphors should be derived are such things as are beautiful either in sound or in suggestiveness or in the *vividness with which they appeal to the eye* or any other sense.'<sup>50</sup> A fault of taste may be shown in the use of metaphors, if they are inappropriate, whether from their absurdity or from excess of dignity or tragic effect, or if they are obscure because far-fetched.<sup>51</sup> The simile, which Cicero does not mention, is only slightly different from the metaphor, according to Aristotle,<sup>52</sup> but should be used sparingly, as 'it has a poetical character.'

In the *Poetics*<sup>53</sup> Aristotle is much more scientific than in the *Rhetoric* in his analysis and treatment of the metaphor. He says;

<sup>45</sup> P. 231.

<sup>46</sup> P. 231.

<sup>47</sup> P. 232.

<sup>48</sup> P. 233.

<sup>49</sup> P. 234.

<sup>50</sup> P. 235.

<sup>51</sup> P. 238.

<sup>52</sup> P. 239.

<sup>53</sup> P. 70.

'Metaphor consists in the application to one thing of the name that belongs to another.' After enumerating the various ways by which metaphors may be formed, he illustrates each. '(a). The name of the genus may be applied to a subordinate species; (b) the name of the species may be applied to the inclusive genus; (c) under the same genus the name of one species may be applied to another; or (d) there may be a transference of names on grounds of analogy (or proportion).'

We conclude from this comparison that the difference in these two treatises is not in subject-matter, but chiefly in the emphasis placed upon the elements deemed essential in a discussion of style. We have considered the following points: the diversity and varieties of style; propriety of style; instruction in style; the importance of style; purity of language; perspicuity; the use of words singly, and in composition; rhythm; embellishment; and metaphors. We have seen Cicero, as the experienced orator, emphasize certain elements, while Aristotle has shown himself in his treatment to be rather the observer, the philosopher, the analyst.

## THE RHETORIC OF ORATORY AND HOW TO TEACH IT<sup>1</sup>

EDWIN DUBOIS SHURTER

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**A**N AFTER-DINNER speaker who was assigned the subject, "The World, the Flesh, and the Devil," said that he would skip the world, touch lightly upon woman, and go at once to the Devil. In treating the subject assigned me this afternoon, I will practically skip the first term, "The Rhetoric of Oratory," and touch more or less lightly upon two or three aspects of "How to Teach It."

It is interesting to note in passing, however, that *rhetoric* is derived from a Greek word meaning the art of speaking, and that prior to the invention of printing, the rhetoric of oratory was the only rhetoric known. Again, it will clear the air if we understand that by the much abused term, *oratory*, which has no universally accepted meaning, we mean persuasive speech—speech that induces belief in the speaker's message and that reaches those impelling motives which incite the listener to action.

Now, that there is a rhetoric for discourse addressed to a hearer as distinguished from composition addressed to a reader, no one can doubt; and an adequate course of training in Public Speaking must include a course in speech composition, involving considerable practice in writing. Such a course must by no means supplant oral composition, but should be supplementary to, and corrective of, the practise in extempore speaking and debating. The need for training in oratorical composition arises from the fact, first, that nothing can take the place of drill in organization and expression that come from practise in reducing one's thoughts to writing, and secondly, there are still innumerable occasions in the midst of the hurly-burly of modern life that afford ample time to plan and compose a speech in advance of its delivery. Whether or not the composition is delivered from memory is another story.

A comprehensive course in oratorical composition should include (1) a study of the rhetoric of persuasion, (2) an intensive

<sup>1</sup> A paper presented before the National Association of Academic Teachers of Public Speaking, at Chicago, December 27, 1917.

and critical study of a few oratorical masterpieces, and (3) practise in the writing and delivery of speeches that illustrate the various forms of present-day public address, and prepared for different types of audiences, hypothetical or actual.

The general qualities of style that must characterize effective oral discourse—the need of absolute clearness as the speaker proceeds, or what Mr. Phillips, in his *Effective Speaking*, calls “instant intelligibility,” the need of a central idea that represents the speaker’s purpose, the use of iteration by means of restatement and reinforcement of the main points, the illuminating effect of illustration and the specific instance and concreteness until the thought is visualized, the direct discourse which reveals an audience sense, the adaptation of one’s style to reach a particular audience—all these matters have been dealt with by ancient and modern authors, and I would not presume to treat them, even if time permitted, before this gathering. What I desire to stress is this: It is of vital importance that we approach the teaching of speech composition from the proper viewpoint. Let me therefore call your attention to three aspects of my subject which teachers are prone to disregard. These are: (1) The rhetoric of oratory must be taught, in large measure, by actual speech composition on the part of the students: an ounce of practise is worth pounds of theory. (2) The subject-matter of speeches, both for illustrative purposes and for the student’s work in composition, should be related to problems of present-day interest and importance. (3) The type of address to be studied and practised should be the brief, incisive kind that our times demand.

(1) Most beginning teachers of Public Speaking first approach their work of instruction with much the same attitude as graduates of the teacher-training classes from our normal schools and college departments of pedagogy. They are steeped in “methods.” Moreover, the very nature of our subject requires constant attention to methods. The danger is, that we are apt to waste precious time in expounding this or that theory or system, and, like the typical pedagogue, we are apt to think that a particular system in which we have been trained—and which being interpreted usually means “my system”—is a sure cure for all the speaker’s ailments. As one grows in experience and wisdom, he cares less for theory and aims more for practical results.

In my first class in speech composition wherein we used a text-book as the basis for the work, the text was first completed before assigning any written exercises. The students responded finely to the oral quizzes on the text, and gave good analyses of the exercises appended to each chapter. The theory was mastered. Practise in speech composition followed, and these brilliant students almost uniformly violated every principle of the rhetoric of oratory. The moral is, that each lesson, as the subject is developed, must be supplemented by appropriate written work.

(2) If we keep in view the demands for training in citizenship, the subjects for speech-composition should be related to such local, state, or national problems as are constantly pressing for solution. Most teachers, I assume, will readily agree to this proposition, and yet, our interscholastic and intercollegiate oratorical contests are still, not infrequently, sad exhibitions of the violation of the principle just announced. At the University of Texas we have tried to avoid the typically unreal, unoriginal, and insincere contest-oratorion by requiring our students, in the local tryouts for representation in our State oratorical contest, to speak upon a Texas public question, listing a dozen such questions from which choice must be made. In class work, the ideal subject is, of course, a local problem that requires first-hand treatment and is of personal import to the writer and speaker.

Further, the oratorical masterpieces to be studied as models of style should be those by modern speakers who deal with live subjects. This dictum may not find ready acceptance by all teachers, but I am convinced that much time is wasted in the study of oratorical productions that have only an historical interest. I can imagine an excellent course in oratorical composition without mentioning Demosthenes or Cicero or Burke, or even Webster. I think that more valuable examples, on the score both of subject-matter and of style, can be found in Phillips and Beecher and Grady and Curtis, or even better still, in such living models as Beveridge or Roosevelt, supplemented by the classic phrasing of President Wilson. Such speakers furnish better models for present-day demands than the traditional classics.

(3) Finally, the typical speech for class-work should be the short, pointed, straight-from-the-shoulder treatment that our times demand. In a course in oratorical composition I would not

allow more than one speech of fifteen minutes in length, one of ten minutes, perhaps, and the assignments otherwise should consist of the treatment of a single topic, with a five-minute limit. The formal, elaborate discourse is today rarely needed, but the brief, pointed discussion of a single topic on which the speaker must single-shot just as straight forwardly and strikingly and persuasively as he can, is the sort of speech that demands our study.

If, then, a course in speech composition be so conducted that ample practise is had in writing along with the study of theory; if the subjects for speeches and the models of style deal with living problems of the day and living speakers; and if a short, pointed, five-minute speech be considered the desideratum, we have gone a long way toward vitalizing a course in persuasive speech and making it of real practical value.

## JUDGING DEBATES

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and

J. M. O'NEILL

University of Wisconsin

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I. BY MR. WELLS

THE Editor's article on "The Jurymen's Vote," published in the October Number of *THE QUARTERLY*,<sup>1</sup> presents the first serious attempt (which I have seen) to elucidate the application of the "critic's vote" to the judging of debate. But it is also in rebuttal of my article, appearing in the same number, and I believe that I should answer it, not only that the argument may be closed in due form, but more especially because Professor O'Neill's reply furnishes me my first opportunity to strike at something tangible.

However, his article is not as lucent as it might be, for no attempt is made to tell us specifically how the system works. Professor O'Neill does say: That it is "as easy to *define* skill in debate as in landscape painting, story writing, or poetry," but it does not follow that it is easy, or even possible, to judge debate upon that basis.

Apparently, the real issue of our controversy lies deeper than we have supposed. I understand the purpose of the study of Argumentation to be the training of men to think correctly to right conclusions. I conceive the purpose of Debating to be the training of men in the expression of correct thought, in such manner as to solicit other men to right judgments.

I have said that the decision should be based upon the *result* of the art of argumentation, as expressed in debate; Professor O'Neill has said: "That a decision should be made which is based upon how much the debaters *appear to have been equipped and educated* in this field of endeavor." (The italics are mine.) In other words, he wishes to adjudge the result of the art of coaching debates; while I believe that the judge should be interested solely in the results of the art of Argumentation, as achieved

<sup>1</sup> P. 346.

by the debater through the medium of debate; he wishes to determine the excellence of the instruction, as exhibited by the debaters; I want to discover what the debaters can *accomplish* with their trained equipment.

I believe that the above is a fair drawing of the issue, and I am only restrained from the remark that, to state it is to decide the issue in my favor, by the realization that some men of intelligence do accept the contrary view, for it seems to me that we should have one educational activity devoted to the use of the student's general mental equipment in the actual accomplishment of concrete results, and in which he is judged in accordance with the results attained, and not upon his mere reciting ability or display of learning. I believe that debating is almost the only college activity of this sort, and certainly the best, for it calls into action the student's entire store of intellectual and forensic resources.

Art is always dynamic, moving to definite purposes. It must, therefore, be judged by its results. A painting is something more than a mere ensemble of technical elements. Indeed, it is the expression of the personality, or it is a daub, no matter how skillful the line and color. If the *result* of skill be merely the attainment of more skill, the World will be amused, perhaps, but will soon pass on, satiated.

A contest in landscape painting is not a fair analogy for a debate contest, for the complete *result* of the art applied to the painting is presented to the judge. He is able to, and should, decide upon the merits of the painting, as a whole, including its subject; no artificial assumptions, whatever, are necessary. But, if he ignore the virtue of the painting, and consider painting skill as the basis of decision, in other words, if he does not award the prize to the *best picture*, I will repeat, even though I be again misquoted, that such a *decision* (not Mr. O'Neill's position or Mr. O'Neill) "is shocking to every moral sense and productive of false concepts."

If Professor O'Neill is right, and decisions should be based upon the respective merits of the debating education acquired by the debaters, that is, the result of the instructor's instruction, then, I find it difficult to understand his anxiety to relieve the instructor of the result of his negligence, when he has permitted his

school to debate an impossible or lop-sided resolution. (See, "Assumptions" 4, 5, and 6, pp. 347, 348, "The Juryman's Vote," October QUARTERLY).

"Assumption" 5 shows, on its face, that the difficulty indicated is largely imaginary. Suppose the question *were* "Resolved, that America's entry into the world war was Justified." Is it possible that Professor O'Neill believes that the burden of proof has become insuperable for the affirmative? Of course, this question has simply become unfit for debate, no matter how stated, and would have to be abandoned. This is usually the only solution where conditions change so fundamentally.

But Professor O'Neill's alarm proceeds from a magnified conception of the burden of proof. The affirmative is only required to establish a *prima facie* case, and that is not onerous, even if the true burden of proof should have been shifted adventitiously. If burden of proof be rightly considered, it is certain that the privilege of the last rebuttal equalizes matters. Many debaters prefer the affirmative, believing that it more than compensates for the burden of proof.

I hesitate to suggest that I have known debaters to stipulate that the debate shall be deemed to relate back to the date when the resolution was accepted, for I fear another chastisement on account of my assumptions. So much for uncontrollable changes in true position. As for improper statement of the resolution, I must repeat that I see no reason to travesty reason with decisions which do violence to the clear result of the argument presented, merely to relieve the instructor from the result of his negligence, especially, where the change of system contemplated frankly purposes to adjudge the work of that self-same instructor.

The best answer to Professor O'Neill's "assumptions" 1, 2, and 3, is to say that, however theoretically difficult it may be to lay aside pre-knowledge and prejudice, still it is done every day, not only in debate, but in Courts of law, and in matters of the most vital importance. While it will be conceded that the scope of the operation is broader on debate, nevertheless the principle is identical in the two cases. Moreover, I am convinced that practicing attorneys will confirm my opinion, based upon my experience as a trial lawyer and judge, that the infinite variety of the offices of the Juryman in a Court of law is quite as complex

as that of a judge of debate. It seems comparatively safe, therefore, to indulge these three assumptions, particularly, since it is agreed that, whichever system be used, an experienced judge should be selected. However, there are more important inquiries to make:

Professor O'Neill says that the judge should "think in terms of *ability of contestants* rather than in terms of strength of cases or weight of evidence." Let us consider the elements which are said to comprise "ability of contestants." How will we consider industry in research, except in respect to its beneficial effect upon the strength of the case or the weight of the evidence? Will the debater be accredited for a display of research in higher mathematics, which has no relevancy to the ethical content of America's entry into the world war? As a matter of fact will we not insist that the research be directed consistently and intensely to the advancing of the "case"? How will we evaluate proficiency in reasoning power without thinking in terms of the case? How can reasoning be proficient, except as it is directed exclusively toward the development of the case? How can it even be phrased other than in "terms of the case?" I do not even understand what is meant by "excellence in speaking," when associated with debate, unless it mean the complete consecration of every cunning device of oral expression and the entire personality of the debater to the winning of the "case."

The Editor complains because I refuse to consider whether or not the debaters were "better able to catch and expose the weaknesses of their opponents' position, and to defend their own 'case' against attack." Heavens!! Have we shifted sides in this debate? I will admit that I am vastly more interested in whether or not the debaters *did* catch and expose the weaknesses of their opponents' position, and whether or not they *did* defend their own case against attack. But what has he to do with "positions" and "cases"? If he is not careful, he will be thinking in terms of strength of cases and weight of evidence!! Come now, can we really escape, even under his system?

Professor O'Neill insists that the judge shall reward dexterity in strategy and debate tactics; but how can he do so, except by relation to their promotion of the strength of the case? What are the purposes of strategy and maneuver, if other than to assist

the case? The extraction and crafty use of admission, the creation of dilemmatic surprises and similar devices are only valid as aids to the case. Used for any other purpose, they are either turgid and epideictical displays of vanity, or tricky attempts to shift the issue. Therefore, strategy and debate tactics can only receive just credit, even under the "critic's vote," when they advance the case or increase the weight of the evidence.

And, will we accredit rebuttal? But, if we ignore the "case" and weight of evidence, of what value is rebuttal? Rebuttal is solely for the purpose of weakening the opposing case, thus strengthening our own; but why undertake to destroy the opposing case or strengthen our own, if the merits of the case are not to be considered?

I cannot repress my astonishment that the Editor should have cited the Lincoln-Douglas debate as illustrative of either of our positions. The decision in that debate more nearly resembled the "legislator's vote," which we both reject. But it was not even that; it was a decision rendered in the passion and prejudice of a partisan campaign. Lincoln would need have no fear of a "juryman's vote." A board of competent judges, acting upon the lines laid down for the "juryman's vote," would have rendered a unanimous verdict in his favor. I trust that Professor O'Neill is not of the opinion that Douglas made the better case!! Indeed, can we conceive of Douglas receiving an unbiased decision other than upon his debating skill? I cannot. On the contrary, it is no reflection upon Lincoln's polemic reputation to say, that a board of "critics" would be in grave danger, even today, of awarding the palm to the "Little Giant," if it were not that the inherent strength of Lincoln's case and the overwhelming weight of his evidence had turned every adroit stratagem of Douglas and had driven it back to wound and destroy that practitioner of "skill in debating." Lincoln certainly used "every wile that's justified by honor," but the strength of his case lent incalculable power and force to his skill. Lincoln's polemic skill consisted first, always first, in his ability and determination to think correctly to right conclusions. Do you believe that Lincoln would have displayed equal forensic skill, if he had exchanged sides with Douglas?

This raises the question: How will we separate debating skill from the case? I will not say that they are not theoretically

severable, but I cannot think in terms which comprehend the process of separation; neither am I able to mentally visualize them as separate entities. How much does the case owe to skill in debating, and how much of the opportunity to display skill is due to the inherent strength of the case? Indeed, how much so-called skill will be the mere presentation of the inherent elements composing the case? Assuming that we have adopted a lop-sided resolution, it seems to me that ordinarily strength of case and skill in debate will tend to coalesce, and thus, after all our labor, we have failed to equalize an inherently unequal thing, as indeed, the immanent nature of such a situation makes impossible.

Let me correct the Editor, here; I did not say that "the persons excelling in these matters (skill in debating) will always present the stronger case." I did say that the debaters, so excelling, possess a prodigious advantage over their opponents; that the chances are tremendously in their favor, because they are likely to establish a clear-cut "case," while their opponents botch even an inherently stronger case.

But, in any event, we have seen that however the judges *vote*, the *contestant* cannot be permitted to dissociate polemic dexterity and the strength of his case. *He*, certainly, must employ his skill for the preëminent purpose of developing and defending his case; *he* must never falter in industry nor abandon his research, *he* must seek to increase the weight of his evidence.

I have no doubt that even Professor O'Neill will agree with the last statement. And yet he will say that it is not make-believe to compel the debater to assume that the case is all-important, and then to reward him in accordance with his mere display of technical skill? He is right; that is not even make-believe; it is a farce!

How long will it be before the debater commences to do clever "stunts" and to resort to sly evasions, thereby soliciting commendation for his "education in this field of endeavor"? The "critic's vote" is surely calculated to produce a plenty of "shifty and bombastic Douglasses."

The make-believe of the "juryman's vote" has this merit; it strives to approximate actuality. But I am not afraid of the epithet; let us admit the make-believe. It is present in all games; often it supplies zest to the game. If assumptions be odious, it

is nevertheless certain that we both start with the same assumption, namely, that the judge will lay aside his personal opinions and prejudices. This is the most violent assumption of all, albeit we know that it can be and usually is accomplished, notwithstanding its theoretical "impossibility." This assumption is just as vital to the "critic's vote" to the "juryman's vote," for the judge's opinions and prejudices are just as apt to color his decision respecting "skill in debate" as they are to bias his judgment respecting the strength of the "case."

It is only because of the time-limit that I desire to eliminate the personal opinions of the judges. If it were not for the time-limit, I would suggest an inquisition of judges similar to the procedure in selecting a jury (at least in effect). Having selected judges with no strong, unchangeable convictions upon the subject, I would very much like to impose the task of convincing the judges upon the debaters. But the time-limit will only permit the contestants to combat the contentions of their opponents; they cannot know, or, if they suspect them, they do not have time to answer all of the arguments, which may arise in the minds of the judges.

I must remind Professor O'Neill that he has overlooked my contention that his system defeats itself, because it creates a "right" and a "wrong" side, of an entirely new character. Industry, research, and even excellence in speaking may be impossible or difficult to exhibit upon certain sides of many questions; indeed, every resolution will have a "right" side in respect of some one or more of these factors, thus injecting an element of luck into every debate, which no amount of precaution can eliminate.

Call it make-believe, if you will, I shall still insist that my debater shall practice the art of argumentation and debate; that they shall seek to think correctly to right conclusions, *first*; that they shall debate with the object of inducing their hearers to form sound judgments; and I want the decision to attempt, be it by ever so much make-belief, to admeasure the respective success of the teams in this undertaking. I am content to leave vocal and mental calisthenics in the classroom; I want the debate to be a demonstration of the ability of the students to *use* what they have acquired in the classroom, to the accomplishment of definite objectives and purposes. I want the decision to be given to the

team which succeeds in attaining its definite objective and purpose. I cannot subscribe to that doctrine which elevates skill in a mere exercise and debases the purposes of the exercise, by virtue of which only is the exercise dignified and lifted above a vain and meaningless mummery.

The "critic's vote" loses sight of the fact that education does not consist in an accumulation of accomplishments. Culture is not skill in classroom exercise. Education and culture have little relation to mere accumulation of knowledge. "The educated man is not the man who knows certain things, but the man who can do certain things." (Arthur T. Hadley, President Yale University, *Harper's Magazine*, September, 1917.) I am very much less interested in "accomplishments," and vastly more interested in accomplishment.

## II. BY MR. O'NEILL

A few brief comments on Judge Wells' article seem to be needed in order to avoid confusion.

Of course I am not interested in judging the art of coaching debates, or judging the excellence of instruction as exhibited by the debaters. I am interested in judging the ability of the debaters to practice the art they are supposed to be practicing. Whether they have ever had coaching or instruction is quite beside the point. It will probably be admitted that students who have had the right kind of coaching or instruction will be better able to practice their art than students who have not been instructed at all or those who have been badly instructed. But the ability shown in the art should be judged, not the instruction. If certain debaters do better work than their opponents that should suffice, regardless of the quality or amount of the instruction they have received. In other words I want precisely what we get in other kinds of contests, an intelligent decision on the work done, the ability shown. That voting on the strength of the case as presumably weighed by hypothetical judges controlled by Judge Wells' elaborate system of assumptions, is a very unsatisfactory method of reaching such a decision I have tried to show in an earlier article.<sup>1</sup>

The *instructor* should neither be saved from, nor punished for, his negligence (or his other sins) by a board of judges called

<sup>1</sup> See *THE QUARTERLY* for October, 1917, p. 346.

in to judge a student debate. The judge should not be concerned with whether the students have had instruction or not. If unassisted students can do better work they should get the prize. If Judge Wells is called to judge a high school debate and finds what he thinks is an absurdly worded question, will he seek to punish the people responsible for the absurdity by means of the decision he will render, or will he vote for the group of debaters, who under the circumstances, show themselves to be the better debaters?

Of course an affirmative team under Judge Wells' system must *make out a prima facie case and keep it good*. (A *prima facie* case is a case strong enough to win if it is not answered.) When an affirmative team in a debate is required to do this, they are required to do *all* that is demanded of a plaintiff in a law suit. This is what sustaining a burden of proof means in law, and every where else. How can anyone say that "If burden of proof be rightly considered it is *certain* that the privilege of the last rebuttal equalizes matters"? This *obviously* cannot be true if the evidence and argument available on one side is much stronger than that available on the other, and if the case or the weight of evidence and argument is the only thing to be considered. If the weight of evidence and argument exists and has been presented to the judges, it cannot be taken away by a few minutes' talk—certainly not if the judges are "intelligent men with trained minds"!

It ought not to be necessary to say that of course any research considered ought to bear on the question. But the debater who shows clearly that he knows more about the question in all its relations and all its details than does his opponent, may not have the opportunity to present the *stronger* evidence. He cannot have it if the stronger evidence happens to exist on the other side. Therefore a decision on the evidence and not on quality of work done seems to me an outrageous thing that destroys at once any possible educational advantage that might be gained from such a contest. Of course no one wishes the case or the evidence to be *ignored*. These things should be considered, along with other things, for what ever light they throw on the proper questions to be decided: *Which team has done the better work?* My whole objection is to disregarding everything else which indicates ability

in debate and passing judgment on evidence only as it would be weighed by hypothetical jurymen under an elaborate, artificial, system of presumptions.

The remarks in this article on coaching are surprising in the light of what I said in the article to which this is an answer. I there objected to his system because the debater's *coach* or teacher or parent can often supply him with the heavy evidence which, if he can utter it somehow or other, will get him the decision under Judge Wells' system. That is the most perfect scheme for putting a premium on coaching, and the wrong kind of coaching at that, that I have ever heard of. The coach can make out the case and hunt up the evidence, the debater performs the function of a phonograph, and the judge is *compelled* to vote for the weightiest evidence, for the work of the coach. This sort of mummerly simply isn't debating, and it isn't education—but there is no escape from it under Judge Wells' system. When I hear alleged debaters declaiming heavy evidence which has very patently been prepared for them by someone else, and the significance of which the declaimer very evidently does not understand, I vote against him in favor of some one who has less weighty evidence which he apparently dug up himself and which he understands and talks about in a direct and intelligent manner. How would Judge Wells vote in such a case? If I were addicted to Judge Wells' system I would have to vote for the "over-coached" declaimer, whose coach had worked up his strong case for him, and in so doing I would be helping to fasten on the schools one of the worst curses known in secondary education today.

But the real trouble with Judge Wells' position is that it rests on a belief that there is something cheap and unworthy and dishonest and immoral about being able to debate. "Ability in debating" is something for which Judge Wells entertains a deep seated disrespect. This was evident in his first article and is still more evident in this one. Note these phrases: "not upon his mere reciting ability or display of learning"; Douglas is referred to as "that practitioner of 'skill in debating'"; "Lincoln certainly used 'every wile that's justified by honor'" (evidently in Judge Wells' opinion skill in debating means the use of wiles that are not justified by honor); "his mere display of technical skill";

"How long will it be before the debater commences to do 'clever stunts' and to resort to sly evasions, thereby soliciting commendation for his 'education in this field of endeavor'? The "'critic's vote' is surely calculated to produce a plenty of 'shifty and bombastic Douglasses' "; "I am content to leave vocal and mental calisthenics in the classroom"; "That doctrine, which elevates skill in a mere exercise and debases the purpose of the exercise, by virtue of which only is the exercise dignified and lifted above a vain and meaningless mummery."

If skill or ability in debating means the sort of work that is indicated by these expressions, by all means let us be delivered from it not only in contests but in classrooms. I will join with any man any time to do anything in my power to prevent decisions by "critics" who hold this degenerate view of ability in debating, or to keep out of classrooms teachers who hold such views. Again I repeat if this is what it means to be able to debate, why do we tolerate instruction in such a contemptible art, and how are self-respecting men found who are willing to teach it? If I thought that ability in debating meant the sort of thing depicted above, I would as soon teach safe cracking or applied arson. If you know of a teacher of debate who as a critic would reward the kind of work Judge Wells evidently thinks shows skill in debate, do not be content simply with keeping him from giving a critic's vote in a contest debate. At least see that he is prevented from teaching anything to young people, and if possible see that he is safely locked up in a well guarded penitentiary, where he can display his mere technical skill with a sledge hammer on a rock pile.

### III. BY MR. WELLS

I am reluctant to re-open a discussion, wherein I feel that I have fully expressed my views, and in which I have been given so unlimited an opportunity to support my contentions with argument. I shall, therefore, respectfully decline to do more than answer Professor O'Neill's question. Courtesy requires me to do that. The case of the affirmative is submitted; let the decision be upon the merits of the case, I pray you, for otherwise, I am

without hope of your favor. If this debate be adjudged upon polemic skill, then I humbly confess defeat!<sup>1</sup>

Professor O'Neill's question is as follows:

"If Judge Wells is called to judge a high school debate and finds what he thinks is an absurdly worded question, will he seek to punish the people responsible for the absurdity by means of the decision he will render, or will he vote for the group of debaters who, under the circumstances, show themselves to be the better debaters?"

This is a very subtle question. It is as though I had been asked to state, without explanation, when I expected to commence supporting my family. Of course, if the resolution be patently absurd, then an absurd result cannot be avoided, whatever is done. First, it is absurd to hold the debate; second, it is absurd to render a decision in favor of a team which has been soundly defeated in argument, and rather a cruel punishment to the other team, as well (if we want to call it *punishment*,—every decision, however reached, is a punishment for some one). Moreover, the illustration is inept, for we know that, in such cases, the team which undertakes to defend the unfortunate side of a patently absurd question is almost certain to be overwhelmed and so embarrassed by its predicament, that it fails to do itself justice in any one of the elements, which we are told constitute skill in debating. Therefore, in the normal case of a patently absurd question, the "critic's vote" would vastly increase the handicap of the unfortunate team, instead of equalizing matters, for it purposes to pass upon the relative merits of the respective "exhibitions" (the term is Professor O'Neill's), where the unfortunate team has neither material nor argument with which to construct and rebut, no valid theory to advance, nothing to organize, no strategy (because strategy must relate to a case and there is no case), and no research to display, except such as is perforce fatal to their case. This team, distraught, desperate, and discouraged at the

<sup>1</sup> Perhaps a better reason for my present restraint is a conviction that I cannot adequately deal with Professor O'Neill's case unless I start back in the training room, where intercollegiate debates are born. In this behalf, I have offered the Editor a contribution for the next issue of *THE QUARTERLY*, upon the subject, "Coaching Debates, Purpose and Method." While this paper is not intended to be a renewal of this debate, it will serve inadvertently, to show several of Professor O'Neill's deductions *non sequi*. Thus, my reticence may give me further audience!

start, laboring under insurmountable difficulties (insuperable restraints upon opportunity to display debating ability, is what I refer to here) this team is to be compared with a team, which starts off confident and serene, with every opportunity for the display of research, strategy, rebuttal, and cogency! But Professor O'Neill has inferred, and doubtless will say, that he wants to reward the team which rises above these handicaps. This sounds like a worthy purpose, although such a case is so rare that it seems hardly appropriate to bend a system of judging to accommodate it. But let us see if it will bear analysis upon the merits of this avowed purpose:

I am charged with holding a perverted conception of debating skill. If this be true, I feel that I ought to be forgiven, for there has been a singular absence of due explanation of the practical application of the "critic's vote." But let us see if it be true. When the resolution is patently absurd, how will the unfortunate team win the "critic's" decision, except by a display of maladroit "skill" of the precise character which Professor O'Neill joins me in condemning? What else will they have to display? Therefore, if I *strafe* them, it seems that I am keeping good company. Of course, after what Professor O'Neill has just said, it would be unjust to assume that he would ever withhold his hand from *punishment*, in such a case; and I knew that he wouldn't before he told us. *But I want to know just what his process is, AND I HAVEN'T BEEN TOLD.*

Of course, the question may not be absurd upon its face, and it may be of a lesser degree of absurdity than the resolution indicated by Professor O'Neill's question. In such a case, the observations above made lessen in their application only in equal ratio with the diminishing absurdity of the resolution. The governing principle remains the same.

If the resolution really is not absurd, then, obviously, since I will be guided by the proof adduced, the fact that I may think it "an absurdly worded question," is wholly immaterial. The decision will be the same as though I thought the question excellently worded and chosen.

I must protest against the charge that I believe "that there is something cheap and unworthy and dishonest and immoral about being able to debate." On the contrary, Professor O'Neill's

very quotations of my language disprove it. They show that my respect for skill in debating is so elevated that I cannot remain silent when debating skill is prostituted to any disservice. It is the *misuse* and *abuse* of debating skill which I despise, and I oppose the "critic's vote," because I deem it calculated to encourage abuse and misuse of this skill. It is always a perversion of any art to devote it to the mere display of its constituent parts; the true art consists in a *use* of technic to *achieve* the purpose of the art, whether it be the painting of a picture, the singing of a song or the writing of a book, and it is never art, be the line and color ever so meticulous, if a picture does not result; it is not art, be the tone placement ever so perfect, if the singer does not sing; it is not art, though every rule of rhetoric and literary construction be scrupulously observed, if the book is not a story. I want to encourage and excite the production of the story, the singing of the song, the painting of the picture; I therefore insist upon rewarding the accomplishment of the result sought for.

If the reader have the patience to turn back to my papers, he will find this sentiment recurring with nearly every paragraph, but not one word indicative of dislike for debating ability, when properly used.

To me a debate, or other address, is a word picture, to which an infinite variety of things contribute; it is the ensemble of all the elements of which we have so often spoken in this discussion, together with another exceedingly compelling factor, of which we have not spoken, namely, *personality*. All these are inextricably interlaced in the production of the case; no case can be created, which is not the combination of all of these things, skillfully (I don't like that word) and beautifully complimenting each other, always intensely devoted to the winning of the assent of the hearer.

Somehow, I do not believe that our real objectives are dissimilar. I am convinced that my opponents are actuated by a sincere desire to escape from decisions which are based upon prejudiced opinion and bias, and, insofar as this is true (as I truly believe it to be), insofar as it is an attempt to create a just balance between the opposing teams, their position has and receives my profound respect.

But I can see no assurance of reform in this behalf in the adoption of the "critic's vote"; the danger of decisions colored by bias seems to me unabated, while the effect upon the student contestants is calculated to be disastrous. Professor O'Neill may reply that he has experienced no such regrettable result, but his success may well be due to his happy faculty of holding the debater's attention fixed upon the ultimate purpose. I am certain that most instructors, myself certainly included, would find contests conducted under his system incompatible with their methods of instruction, and their personality unequal to the task of overcoming the natural tendency of the debater to play up to the system of judging, and to slight the development of his case, where an opportunity to indulge a paronomastical brilliancy might tempt him. It will not do to say that the judge should not be misled; of course he ought not to be misled; likewise, he ought not to climb trees backward, but, when we set out to adjudge cases by an inverted process, we may expect inverted results from the most conscientious judge.

The possibility of a biased decision is the debating hazard, which is at once the bane and the captivating adventure of debate, as well as of life, itself. I believe that it is inherent and that every attempt to eliminate its *possibility* will be abortive.

Let us frankly accept the hazard, after we have faithfully endeavored to eliminate the prejudiced and incompetent judge. We cannot reform the human heart, and when we are subjected to an unjust decision, we must ascribe it to the fortunes of debate, seeking refuge in the realization that the debaters cannot be robbed of the wonderful development of mind and body, which no other department of academic training can ever duplicate or replace. The benefits will be retained long after the decision is forgotten, if the contestant shall have acquired an indissoluble consonance of technic and purpose.

I have found appreciable success in the election of a "judge selector," some person, who has the entire confidence of all concerned. The resolution is placed in his hands, he is fully advised in the premises, and he thereupon selects and secures three competent judges, in accordance with his discretion which is absolutely final and conclusive. This avoids "jockeying" for judges who may be partial either to the side or school, and when this is

accomplished, I believe that we have eliminated the most fruitful source of trouble.

I trust that the discussion may be continued by more competent advocates, to the end that debating, the regal sport and illustrious cradle of seer and statesman, shall serve its incomparable office in the development of useful, capable, and loyal men and women.

#### IV. BY MR. O'NEILL

I have just three observations to make: (1) A question may be absurdly worded for debate and still bring up a real problem which would allow a good discussion. The burden of proof might be on the wrong side, or it might be so worded that one side had no chance whatever to present the stronger evidence. In such a case all that one following Judge Wells' system could do would be to vote for the side which drew the fortunate side of the question—regardless of the comparative showing of the debaters in *knowledge, reasoning, original work, honesty, courtesy, good English, good speaking, etc.* What possible educational significance can such decisions have? Why should teachers be interested in them?

(2) The practical application of the critic's vote is simply this. Judges are chosen who know what constitutes good debating, respectable teachers who have a real interest in promoting correct standards preferred. Each judge listens to the discussion and at its close votes for the team which in his opinion is made up of the better debaters. In many places this system is used with a single judge rather than a board. The judge or judges should give orally or in writing the reasons for the decision.

(3) If Judge Wells does not think "that there is something cheap and unworthy and dishonest and immoral about being able to debate," it is a little difficult to follow him; for he clearly believes that decisions based on "ability in debating" will reward and promote cheap, unworthy, and dishonest work. This is apparent throughout his entire discussion. The only alternative that occurs to me is that he believes that *other people* who might be called in as critics would either frankly approve of cheap, unworthy, and dishonest work, or else that they would not be able to tell it from genuine debating. He everywhere *assumes* that the critic's vote on ability in debate will put a premium on all

that is evil. For instance, he writes: "It is the *misuse* and *abuse* of debating skill which I despise, and I oppose the 'critics' vote' because I deem it calculated to encourage misuse and abuse of this skill." The only answer to this position is that we shall choose decent and intelligent critics—men who also despise misuse and abuse, and all cheapness, bombast, superficiality, banality, and dishonesty, and who can distinguish these qualities from those of thorough, honest, intelligent debating.

Why *assume* that a critic of debate must be either mentally deficient or morally depraved?

## A NEW METHOD OF TRAINING THE VOICE

EUGENE FEUCHTINGER, A.M.,  
Chicago, Ill.

**I** TAKE pleasure in submitting to your approval a new and important discovery in Vocal Physiology.

The nature of the discovery is such that through the persistent practice of a few simple and silent muscular exercises, everyone can develop a voice for public speaking or singing.

We have been looking in the wrong places for a method of successfully training the voice. Among the many ways which have been heretofore proposed for voice-training, two stand out most prominently. They are: Resonance and Breathing. Those that hold to the resonance theory, claim that the volume and quality of the tone is caused through reinforcement in the resonance chambers of the pharynx, nose, and head. This theory had much in its favor, for the vocalist feels a physical sensation, he can place his hands at the place of sensation and prove it satisfactorily to himself. Nevertheless, the theory of resonance as being the cause of good or bad quality, of weak or strong tones, is absolutely wrong.

The vocalist's sensations lead him astray; these sensations are not caused by resonance-vibrations in the head or chest cavities, but solely because the external laryngeal muscles contract very greatly in their effort to assist the internal laryngeal muscles to stretch the vocal chords. Thus they become tense and, like the sounding board of a piano or the body of a violin, they vibrate together with the vocal chords. The extrinsic laryngeal muscles are attached to the breast bone, hard palate and skull, hence the singer feels the vibrations at these points. Not the air within the cavities causes the resonance, but the parts, muscles and bones, surrounding these cavities. It is not the air which causes a sounding board to vibrate; the sounding board itself swings to and fro and causes air waves of exactly the same number as the tone, but of larger dimensions, hence the tone is larger and the overtones, which decide the tone quality, can be strongly felt.

As for the methods of breathing, have they not been tried, for lo these many years, without having brought us one step nearer the final solution of voice training? It is utterly impossible to use a different breath pressure for each one of at least twenty-four tones, which are needed by the singer.

The physiologists of the world have made two serious mistakes in their analysis of the vocal organ, owing no doubt to the fact that they looked at the vocal organ only from the point of view of the physician and surgeon; from the point of view of the operating table rather than from the constructive point of view of the speaker and singer. The two oversights made by physiologists are:

*First:* that they conceived the vocal chords to be one single pair of muscles only.

*Second:* that these vocal chords are being stretched by the action of the internal crico and thyro-arytaenoid muscles alone.

The physiological cause of inferior voices is this: The one pair of muscles which connect the tongue and the larynx, the so-called hyo-glossi muscles, are in most persons too weak to perform their important vocal function. These tongue muscles are the keystone or mainspring of the vocal organ and when they are weak, as is usually the case, the entire vocal organ is weakened and good voices become impossible.

I am sure that a method of voice training that is based upon actual facts only, will appeal to the American people. A nation which has conquered Electricity, invented the Telephone, the Aeroplane and Submarine, whose Manufacturers, Teachers and Physicians stand foremost among nations, will appreciate a system by which one can develop a good speaking voice, and, given time and perseverance, even a phenomenal singing voice.

If a voice method is to benefit us permanently, it must be one by which everyone can develop his own voice. Such a method must be based upon Physiology and Mechanics and it must harmonize with the laws of Physics. Then voice production may be standardized, because the same facts have to be dealt with in the voice mechanism of each individual.

Writing about the "New Americanism," Dr. Burton Haseltine of Chicago, says: "The war of nations has awakened in America the spirit of preparedness in more ways than one. This

spirit is manifested in the military, the scientific, manufacturing, educational and the social life of the American people. From an educational and social standpoint, we can have no more fundamental starting point than that of speech. Our very thoughts are inseparable from language, and language is speech. Great commercial institutions as never before, are helping to make wholesome and more beautiful, the land in which we live. The richness of human life is being considered as well as the richness of the human pockets. If it seems a far stretch from nation building to speech training, let us remember that language is the strongest link that binds one people to another."

Writing of the Reformation of American Speech, Prof. Clapp of New York, of the National Council of Teachers of English, says: "A general insistence on decent speech, distinct utterance and clear tones, would not only make life pleasanter; it would lessen disease, because it would promote better hygiene of the vocal tract, among all people. However, a people which has learned the importance of the care of the teeth, should not be hard to convince of the equal importance of its speech. Even in our catarrh causing climate, anyone who desires, can now develop an effective and pleasing voice, at little expense and thereby not only improve his voice, but avoid throat difficulties. Business men nowadays make personality one of their principal requirements and they include in personality the tone quality and distinctness of speech."

It is a fact well known to you all, that to sing or to speak, the vocal chords must vibrate. Now they cannot vibrate unless they are held at a certain tension. To hold the vocal chords at a tension, they must be stretched. [As a superficial illustration of the vocal chords and the stretching of them, imagine two bands of rubber lying close together. If we pull at their ends and blow breath against them we hear a tone. This tone will rise in pitch as we increase the stretching of the rubber bands. Exactly the same thing happens with the vocal chords. As it is of great importance that this fact should be thoroughly understood, I wish to use still another comparison; that of the strings of the violin.] The violinist tunes his instrument by stretching the strings. After the violin is tuned, there is no further stretching of the strings needed, for if higher tones are wanted, the

finger of the player shortens the string. Now as the string becomes shorter, the tone becomes higher.

But with the human strings or vocal chords, neither shortening or lengthening is possible; to the contrary, there must be an ever increasing tension. For instance, if the violin and the human voice were similar, there would have to be provision made in the violin by means of which the player could constantly change the tension of the strings, as he uses higher or lower tones.

In the string instruments high or low tones are obtained by changing the length of the strings, while in the vocal chords, high or low tones are obtained by variations of tension. Once this is understood, the question arises, how is the stretching of the vocal chords accomplished? ANSWER: By a series of muscles especially adapted to this purpose which exist in every normal throat. How do we know that these muscles are active and fully developed? We know this when the voice is sweet, full of charm, strong and yet free. If any of these properties are lacking in the voice, then it is proof that the muscles which stretch the vocal chords are not strong enough.

The great secret of a perfect voice lies in the strength of the muscles which stretch the vocal chords. To explain this point still better, I will give a short description of the larynx, the vocal chords and the muscles which stretch them.

If you touch the hollow of the throat and move the finger upward you will find a little projection called the Ring Cartilage. Going a little further upward you will touch a much larger cartilage known as the Adams apple, and above that you find the Hyoid or Tongue-bone. These three cartilages are connected with each other by means of muscles which in speaking or singing hold them firmly together, thus forming the hollow tube which is called the larynx.

On top of the Ring cartilage and inside of the Adams apple, are two little movable bones out of which grow the vocal chords. These little bones are fastened to the top and rear part of the Ring cartilage by means of muscles. Every time that these muscles contract the rear parts of the vocal chords are moved toward each other. The other ends of the vocal chords are attached to the front angle of the Adams apple, so that whatever

moves the Adams apple, at the same time also moves the frontal attachment of the vocal chords.

Out of the breast and collar bone, several muscles grow upward to the front parts of the larynx; when these muscles contract, they pull the larynx downward, out of the skull, hard palate and the tongue, other muscles grow downward to the rear part of the larynx; when these contract they pull the larynx upward. The muscles which draw the larynx downward and those which draw it upward should pull against each other in such a way that the vocal chords inside of the larynx are being stretched, and held at the tension necessary for the various tones of the scale.

But the vocal chords are not merely two muscles, one on each side of the larynx; they are in reality a group of five pairs of muscles. The internal crico and thyro-arytaenoid muscles from one compact set of muscles of which the vocal chords are only the outer covering or sheath. What we can see of the vocal chords, are not separate, independent muscles. If they were they could be easily stretched. But as they are firmly connected with the muscles surrounding them, they can be separated only by artificial means.

This is one of the facts which have been overlooked not only by voice teachers, but by physiologists as well, though in 1900, Dr. Kraus, of the Royal Charity in Berlin, and in 1913, Dr. Cunningham of Edinburgh, Scotland, called attention to this fact, as being of the greatest importance to the voice. By this provision of several layers of vocal muscles, nature gives us the means to produce strong or soft tones. The public tone, whether for speech or song, is the tone which can fill a large hall, opera or church, so that an audience of thousands can hear the speaker or singer. Such a voice is only possible when all the muscles which constitute the vocal chords are set into vibration. Remembering that the vocal chords must be stretched, you can readily see that it takes a great deal of strength to stretch the combined group of five muscles, especially since the stretching has to be automatic and with the utmost ease. Only the great singers and orators possess this strength; they are born with it; it is unknown to themselves. The vast majority of people

cannot use their full voice, simply because their stretching muscles are too weak.

Because physiologists had assumed that the vocal chords are only a single pair of muscles, it was quite natural also to assume that the action of the internal laryngeal muscles, the crico-artenoid and crico-thyroid muscles were sufficient to stretch the vocal chords.

This is the second mistake made by physiologists.

But now, since we know that the vocal chords are a combination or bundle of muscles, we can readily see that greater tensing power is needed than the action of the feeble internal laryngeal muscles could give.

In fact an unusual power is needed to hold the combined vocal muscles at the needed tension for the public voice.

This tension power is supplied by the external larynx muscles in such a way, that the ring cartilage is held firmly against the spine; then the Adams apple or thyroid cartilage is being tilted downward, closing upon the ring cartilage underneath. As the Adams apple is tilted downward it bends the vocal muscles downward also and thus holds them at the tension required.

The ability to stretch the vocal chords could be easily acquired, but for the almost universal weakness of the muscles which connect the larynx with the tongue—the hyo-glossi muscle. This is the weak link in the chain of muscles which stretch the vocal chords. You know a chain is no stronger than its weakest link, therefore the weak link has to be transformed into a strong link if we would get our full vocal power.

Those muscles which grow from the chest upward into the larynx and those which grow from the head downward to the larynx, meet at a common center, the tongue. But the tongue is too soft to afford these muscles any resistance or hold against which they can brace themselves. If there were nothing else but the tongue, they could only contract very feebly, certainly not strong enough to stretch the enlarged vocal muscles.

Right here, nature has solved the problem in a simple, but most wonderful manner. To give consistency to the tongue, she had placed a bone under it, just as we put shoes on horses' feet to give them greater resistance. Nature has even supplied the nails with which to hold the horseshoe or hyoid bone in

place. All we need is to create the strength to hold the hyoid bone so firmly against the under tongue, that the combined pulling of the other muscles cannot displace it.

When the *hyo-glossi* is made so strong that the hyoid bone retains its natural position against the tongue, then the balance of power is established; speaking and singing become a pleasure; a natural easy thing.

Before I touch upon the consequence of these discoveries, it is necessary to review briefly the laws of Physics which govern the quality of a voice.

A Tone is made up of three elements, Pitch, Volume, and Quality. Each separate tone consists of a mathematically determined number of vibrations, any deviation from the exact number of which will change the pitch. Volume and quality are things added to the pitch; they are entirely independent of the pitch. Because pitch is a fixed quantity, we have no control over it. But we can control the volume and thereby determine the quality. Quality, according to the laws of physics, depends upon the number of overtones which are present in the fundamental tone. The fundamental tone must be strong if the overtones are to be felt. A thin tone is inferior in quality because it contains few overtones. If the vocal chords as commonly understood were all that could be made to vibrate, then we should never hear a voice like that of a Caruso or a Tetrassini and the modern opera would have been impossible, because thin voices cannot rise to the demands of dramatic intensity. The voices of the great singers and orators are an accident of birth; we can now rise above accidents and determine our own vocal destiny if we utilize all the vocal material within us.

Now the vocal organ is just the instrument which can give the greatest number of overtones, and that explains why the human voice is the most satisfactory sound of all. A speaker or singer with a rich, full voice, will receive the sympathy of his audience, while one with a harsh, weak or husky voice, will leave an unfavorable impression, be his subject ever so good.

Speech defects such as stammering, stuttering, thin and husky voices, or harsh and shrill voices are all of them caused by a defective vocal organ.

You see the mechanism of the human body rests upon a strictly mathematical order and system. When that order is not

complied with, all sorts of difficulties arise, until the order is restored.

A perfect voice is possible only when all the muscles which stretch the chords, are made equally strong. To bring this about, the muscles from the tongue to the larynx, which are the weak link in the chain of muscles, must be strengthened. When that has been accomplished, then you have a perfect voice and the technic of speech, and song as well.

The old methods of teaching speech and voice at their best only give the student the use of whatever good ~~there~~ is naturally in his voice. If he has a naturally strong vocal organ, mental training and ear training are all that is needed.

But if his vocal organ is defective, then his voice is also defective and in such a case, merely speaking or singing is not sufficient to give him a better voice.

The reason why speaking or singing exercises do not help the voice materially, is that in speaking or singing we simply use the vocal organ as it is. To develop a voice to its natural limit, the weak muscle has to be trained separately, that is isolated from the other parts. After such a training it will assert itself and the result will be a beautiful voice.

We must realize that we must train the vocal organ and not the voice. Any voice method that does not primarily consider the instrument which produces voice, is at the best haphazard and unscientific.

Having solved the vocal physiology absolutely and forever, it still remained to be proved, and that was a very difficult matter for two reasons. Firstly, because the hyo-glossi muscle is invisible and secondly, because it is nowhere attached to a fixed bone like other muscles; it cannot be felt. However, I have solved this problem also and proved it in hundreds of cases both in Europe and America.

The student is taught how to get hold of the weak muscle and how to train it silently. When he is ready for speaking or singing he has positive proof of the correctness of my method and of his future progress because he can see the operation of the muscle with a mirror, with a finger he can feel it, and with the ear he can hear the improvement.

With this practical training the "vocal attack" which has been so much misunderstood is finally placed where it belongs, that is

in the tongue and not as is often taught in the head, chest, or worst of all, in the diaphragm. In all the ages the tongue has been used as a figure of speech for voice. Shakespeare says:

"Speak the words I gave you, trippingly from the tongue!

But if you mouth it, I'd as leave the town crier had spoken them."

Knowing how to train himself the student can continue this silent simple exercise and thereby automatically develop his voice to the utmost. In the meantime, the entire throat region will more readily resist cold and catarrh; huskiness and vocal defects will disappear.

Dr. D. J. McDonald, writing of New York City says: A study of speech conditions in our public schools shows that two hundred thousand of the eight hundred thousand children are afflicted with stuttering and speech defects.

Dr. Smiley Blanton, of the University of Wisconsin says: "From the investigation of various men in this field, we are justified in saying that from two to five per cent of children are suffering from speech defects. The total number in the whole country will come close to a million."

These researches relate only to school children, not to the men and women of this country. If the grown people were included, the number of speech defectives would surely be in the neighborhood of three to four million.

Now turn to the thousands of people whose voices are hoarse, husky, or shrill and hard. To those who suffer from throat diseases, catarrh, constant clearing of throat, or who are short of breath. All these defects are caused by weak vocal organs or rather by weak tongue muscles, and hence do not allow a normal and correct manner of speech. When the tongue muscles are too weak to operate the vocal organ with ease, when the speaker will use the throat muscles or the jaw and chin muscles; these tighten and force the vocal chords, so that they become inflamed and a general breakdown is the result.

In the case of the singer, the condition is even worse. Thousands of young, talented students study from year to year, most of them never get anywhere, simply because their training has been unscientific, not based on facts, but merely on opinions.

The real singers are so rare that a Town, State, or Nation becomes celebrated for the one singer that it has produced. On

the other hand, almost every town or city has several pianists or violinists who can play some compositions as well as the greatest artists, given the same quality of instruments.

Sound, whether it is musical or merely noise, is a most insistent thing; there is no escape from it. None of the other senses equal the sense of hearing in persistency. You may, by closing the eyes, shut out light, or you can reject anything that is distasteful, but even if you stop the ears, you will hear the pounding of your heart as it sends the blood through the arteries.

Since sound affects us in such an insistent, not to be denied, manner, its influence upon ourselves and those about us, must of necessity be very great, proof enough I think, to claim that my discovery is of practical value to humanity.

## THE WORK OF THE VOICE SECTION OF THE THIRD ANNUAL CONVENTION

FLOYD S. MUCKEY, M.D.C.M.  
New York, N. Y.

AT THE close of the convention one of the leading members of the association asked me the following question. "Why do voice teachers and those who write and speak about the voice disagree so absolutely as to the problems involved in voice production!" The answer was that if those who teach, write, and speak about the voice would confine their statements to those which could be based directly upon the fundamental facts of sound production, there could be no disagreement. Hence the reason for disagreement must be found in the fact that in most of the teaching of voice, and in most of the statements made in regard to voice production there is an utter disregard of these fundamental facts. The greatest possible emphasis should be placed upon this statement, and it is proposed to show in this article that any differences of opinion which were brought out in the work of the Section was due entirely to this cause.

The program of the voice section consisted of the following items.

1. Common Voice Defects, the Cause and Cure of Each—Dr. Floyd S. Muckey, New York City.

*Open Discussion:* Leader, Theresa A. Dacey, Director Speech Improvement Classes, Boston.

2. A new Discovery in Voice Training—Eugene Feuchtinger, Director Perfect Voice Institute, Chicago.

The contention of the first speaker was briefly as follows: A voice defect is a lack of some essential characteristic of the voice, and before we can understand what is meant by common voice defects we must know what the essential characteristics of the effective voice are. It was maintained that three things were essential to efficiency in voice production. 1st, The least possible expenditure of energy in this production and hence the conservation of the voice mechanism. 2nd, Distinctness of enunciation (vowel sounds) and articulation (consonants) 3rd, Agreeableness of Sensation. Numbers 2 and 3, conserve the energy of

the listener. We thus see that efficiency and conservation of energy travel hand in hand. Every individual possesses a certain store of energy and he can use no more than he has. If the speaker expends too much energy in producing his voice, or the instrument which carries his message, the less he has to expend upon the content of that message, and hence he is in just so far inefficient. The listener is in the same predicament. If he is compelled to expend the greater portion of his energy in getting the words of the speaker, he will have little energy left to expend upon the ideas presented by him. It is this particular phase of the subject, the one which applies to every speaker and every listener, and therefore which may be described by the term "common," which is of especial interest to the Association of Teachers of Speech. It was this phase of the subject which was discussed in the first paper entitled "Common Voice Defects: The Cause and Cure." It was pointed out that as the voice is sound and sound is airwaves, that voice production must be air-waves production. That in air wave (voice) production three things are essential: 1st, a vibrator to start the air waves. 2nd, a pitch mechanism to determine the rate at which the air-waves are started by the vibrator. 3rd, a resonance mechanism to amplify the air-waves for volume and quality. It was shown that efficient or natural voice production depends upon three things: 1st, a free motion of the vibrator that the proper series of air-waves may be started by it. 2nd, a free action of pitch mechanism that pitch changes may be accomplished with the least possible expenditure of energy, and 3rd, full use of the resonance space (pharynx, mouth and nose) which, although the most important element in both volume and quality, entails absolutely no expenditure of energy and hence represents the acme of efficiency. It was stated that only when these things obtained could the effective voice be produced and that voice defects were due to interferences with one or all of these most desirable conditions. All these are fundamental facts which may be substantiated by reference to any works on acoustics (science of sound), and which must be admitted by everybody who thinks and reasons. Acousticians, whose business it is to know every phase of air wave production, including the action of vibrators, pitch mechanisms, and resonators, tell us that all sound (including speech sounds) are divided into two great classes, viz., Tone and Noise.

Tone includes all sounds in which the air-waves proceed in regular sequence, while noise includes all of those sounds which proceed in irregular sequence. Regularity and irregularity of air-wave motion, therefore, afford a definite basis for an accurate classification of speech sounds. Under tone, or regularity of wave motion, fall all sounds represented by the letters, *a, e, i, o, u, m, n, l, r*, etc. Under noise, or irregular air-wave motion we have sounds represented by *S, H, F, K, G*, whispered vowels, etc. There is a vast difference in these two classes of sound, not only in their constitution, but in their mode of production and in the effect which they produce upon the listener. Regularity of vibration and hence the origination of regular air-wave motion (tone) requires a vibrator having great elasticity. Yellow elastic tissue is the only structure of the body which possesses this. The true vocal chords are made up almost entirely of yellow elastic tissue. The true vocal chords, therefore, originate all of the air-waves in tone. In speech sounds included in the class termed noise, the vibrator consists of a small air column adjacent to the constriction produced in the vocal passages; 1st, by the false vocal chords which are located in the larynx just above the true cords; 2nd, by the back of tongue and soft palate; 3rd, by the tip of tongue; 4th, by the lips. The 1st is represented by the sound of *h*, the second by *K* and *G*; the 3rd by *t* and *d*; the 4th by *p, f*; etc. Energy in voice production is represented mainly by breath pressure. The amount of breath pressure essential to the operation of these two kinds of vibrators is very different. A great amount of breath pressure is used in the production of noises, while comparatively little is needed in the correct production of tone. The interferences with correct tone production are first, the contraction of the muscles of the false vocal chords which prevents the free swing of the true cords, and hence the proper series of air-waves is not started by them, 2nd, The contraction of the muscles of the soft palate has the effect of shutting the air-waves out of the upper pharynx and nasal cavities. We have shown by actual analysis which cannot be controverted that this takes away at least one half the volume and results in a great deterioration of the tone quality. 3rd, the interference caused by the contraction of the muscles of the back of the tongue (hyoglossi) and those running from the chin to the hyoid bone. The pulling down of the tongue by the contraction of the hyoglossi muscles interferes with the egress of the air-waves from the

larynx, prevents the clear differentiation of the vowel sounds by stiffening the tongue, and interferes with the free action of the pitch mechanism. The contraction of the chin muscles interferes also with the action of the pitch mechanism. These various forms of interference entail not only a great loss in volume, quality and pitch range in tone production, but also require a greater expenditure of breath pressure or energy, and also lessen very greatly the agreeableness and distinctness of the sensations produced in the listener. We also find that the action of the resonators is much more effective in tone than in noise, and also that they are more effective in amplifying air-waves produced without false cord interference than where there is interference. It was, therefore, shown that effectiveness as regards expenditure of energy, distinctness and agreeableness depended largely upon interference. It was demonstrated that the action of the mechanism which produces noise or consonants was an interference with the action which produces tone; hence the consonant action must not be carried over into the vowel action. Moreover, consonants must be made as short as is compatible with distinctness, as they represent inefficiency, and disagreeableness. Demonstrations were given showing how to remove interference and illustrating what was meant by clear differentiation of vowel sounds. The following summary will give a clear idea of the ground covered and the conclusions reached.

## SCIENCE OF PHONETICS

### (Speech Sounds)

1. DEFINITIONS. AIR WAVES AND SENSATIONS PRODUCED BY THEM.
2. ANALYSIS (Separation into partial tones)
3. CLASSIFICATION OF FACTS (Constituent elements)

#### 1. Tone (Regular air-waves)

1. Fundamental vowel sound = the hum
2. True Vowels — A, E, I, O, U, etc.
3. Modified Vowels — M, N, L, etc.
4. Semi-vowels (tone and noise)  
Tone predominant — V, Z, etc.

Agreeable Sensation  
Small expenditure  
of energy = effectiveness.  
Non-interference = effectiveness.

#### 2. Noise — Consonants (Irregular Air-Waves)

1. Continuents = S, H, etc.
2. Explosives = T, K, etc.
3. Semi-consonant = whispered vowels.

Disagreeable Sensation.  
Great expenditure  
of energy = ineffectiveness.  
Interference with  
tone = Ineffective.

4. CAUSES (Action of Mechanism)

1. Vibrators (Originate air-waves)

1. True vocal cords (tone): 1. Length 2. Weight  
3. Tension

Give definite pitch changes and hence inflection and wide range

2. Air column (Noise) 1. Adjacent to false vocal cords

back of tongue

2. " "

tip of tongue

3. " "

4. " "

lips

No definite pitch changes, no inflection, small range

2. Resonators (Amplify air-waves)

1. Pharynx and Nose = the hum: Very effective in tone  
2. Pharynx, Mouth and Nose = all sounds except hum—in-effective in noise

3. Pitch Mechanism (Rate at which air-waves are started)

1. Cartilages and muscles of larynx (tone)  
2. Size and shape of resonators (noise)

5. RELATIONSHIPS (Facts in Common)

1. Pitch (length of wave)

1. Tone (Regularity)

1. Controlled by length, weight, and tension of vocal cords = slight expenditure of energy = effectiveness.  
2. Definite pitch changes, wide range, variety of inflection = agreeableness.

2. Noise (Irregularity)

1. Controlled by size and shape of resonators = great expenditure of energy = ineffectiveness.  
2. No definite pitch changes, small range, little variation of inflection = disagreeableness.

2. Volume ("Height" of wave)

1. Tone (Regularity)

1. Extent of swing of vocal cords = wide range, slight expenditure of energy = effectiveness.  
2. Resonance = no expenditure of energy = greatest possible effectiveness.

2. Noise (Irregularity)

1. Controlled by air blast = small range, great expenditure of energy = ineffectiveness.  
2. Resonance = ineffectiveness.

3. Quality (Form of wave motion)

1. Tone (Regularity)

1. Vibration of cords as a whole and in segments = great variation = agreeableness.

2. Resonance on account of regularity of wave length = effectiveness.
2. Noise (Irregularity)
  1. Vibration of air column = little variation = disagreeableness.
  2. Resonance on account of irregularity of wave motion = ineffectiveness.
6. NATURAL LAW (Resume)
  1. Effectiveness as to expenditure of energy and distinctness and agreeableness of sensation.

*Note*—(This chart is the result of the deliberations of a group, consisting of Dr. Chas. P. G. Scott, the well-known philologist and Etymologist; Prof. Thos. F. Cummings, professor of phonetics in the Bible Training School of New York City; Mrs. Mary K. Scripture, Chief of the Vanderbilt clinic for speech defectives, New York City; Mr. Geo. Bowden for the past five years at the head of the vocal department of the University of California; and Dr. Floyd S. Muckey, New York City, Author of the Natural Method of Voice Production.)

The discussion was opened by Miss Dacey who made two brief references to the preceding paper and then presented a discussion of stuttering and stammering, which consumed the greater part of an hour and left no time for discussion of the subject under consideration. Miss Dacey's first criticism was that while all that had been said was perfectly true, it was not new; that she and Dr. Scripture had carried out an investigation years before which covered all of these points. From all that can be gathered, Mrs. Scripture, if not "the main spoke in the wheel" in this investigation, at least was a very important one, and was perfectly familiar with all the work which had been done up to the time of Dr. Scripture's mysterious disappearance. She has since carried on the work herself. The writer has known Mrs. Scripture well for the past three years. She has heard this lecture and demonstration several times and has never even hinted that there was any trespassing upon Dr. Scripture's preserves. The writer has read practically everything which Dr. Scripture has published and there is no sign of definition, classification, analysis of tone, interference, or any of the fundamental propositions upon which this work rests, present in any of them. We have never claimed credit for the fundamental facts presented, as they are as old as the ages. What we do claim is that we were the first to apply these facts to the action of the mechanism and from this to work out a rational system of removal of interference and development of the voice mechanism.

The second criticism given by Miss Dacey was that the paper presented did not deal with the subject-matter indicated by the title as it appeared on the program. That the discussion should have been limited to that particular class of defective speech called stuttering and stammering. Miss Dacey then took up a discussion of the latter subject, which left no time for consideration of the first paper presented. Stuttering and stammering are merely an exaggeration of the common defects of speech and hence are placed in a class by themselves and called speech defects. Stuttering and stammering are not, therefore, common defects as the title of the first paper is stated, but a particular class of defects. Moreover the cause and cure of these exaggerations of common defects cannot be understood or effected until the cause and cure of the common defects are understood and effected. Hence any discussion of the cause and cure of exaggerated defects will be more or less profitless and ineffective until the cause and cure of common defects are known. The writer claims, therefore, that the matter contained in the first paper applied directly to the subject of common defects as indicated by the title, and also to the subject of stuttering and stammering which Miss Dacey discussed. The means employed to cure the common defects is the only effective and permanent method of curing stuttering and stammering. If the stammerer will cultivate a correct "hum," and then gradually add those motions of the tongue and lips essential to the formation of the so-called vowel and consonant sounds, without interfering with the "hum," his troubles will vanish, and he will be left with a good speaking voice. The Stammerer must acquire confidence in his vocal mechanism, which he has lost on account of excessive interference, particularly of the false cords, and there will be no further difficulty. This confidence can only be acquired through the use of the mechanism without interference. All of the exercises given by Miss Dacey in her own paper were directly opposed to the fundamental principles of tone production as outlined in the first paper, the truth of which Miss Dacey had already acknowledged. Why does Miss Dacey advocate exercises which are contradictions of the real truth of voice production? "Yawning, sobbing, laughing, throwing the voice, the whisper, voluntary action, forcible opening of the mouth" and the other exercises which Miss Dacey showed are all directly contrary to the right

action of the voice mechanism in speech and song. Miss Dacey used no nasal resonance in her own speaking voice and oftentimes false cord interference was very evident. Her articulation was not distinct owing to the stiffening of the tongue caused by lowering it in the back. These interferences are caused directly by the exercise advocated by her which the poor unfortunate stammerer is urged to imitate.

The next paper on the program was entitled, "A New Discovery in Voice Training" by Eugene Feuchtinger, Director of Perfect Voice Institute. A more appropriate title would have been "A Rediscovery of the John Howard Method of Voice Training." Every idea advanced in this paper and much more of the same character may be found in a book written by John Howard and published some thirty years ago. These ideas have been put into practice by John Howard and his disciples, of which Mr. Feuchtinger is evidently one, for the last forty years and have never produced a good speaking or singing voice. On the contrary they have been responsible for ruining thousands of otherwise beautiful voices and the writer's voice is among this number. Some thirty years ago the writer procured John Howard's book entitled "The Physiology of the Singing Voice" and proceeded, under the guidance of various instructors, to put it into practice for a period of about three years. At the end of this time there was complete loss of voice for a considerable time due to inflammatory conditions in the larynx. When the voice finally returned and the inflammatory conditions had somewhat subsided it was found that one of the arytenoid cartilages to which the cords are attached posteriorly was bound down by inflammatory adhesions and hence was immovable and has always remained so. The motion of these cartilages is essential to the approximation of the vocal cords in speech and song. The result of this binding down is that one cord can only be slightly drawn in toward the central point of the larynx while the other must be brought way past its normal position in order to meet it. The condition causes a constant irritation of the larynx and the vocal cords are in a constant state of congestion and pitch changes are greatly hampered. During a practice of 20 years as a throat specialist hundreds of such cases have come under the writer's observation due to precisely the same cause. This is the direct result of disregarding the fundamental facts of voice production.

Every statement made by John Howard, Mr. Feuchtinger and others who teach and preach this doctrine is directly contrary to the fundamental facts concerned as established by the anatomist, physiologist, and physicist. For example these gentlemen state that the vocal cords are made up of muscular tissue and that these muscles together with all the vocal muscles and the tissues surrounding the resonance cavities vibrate and help to produce tone. Every histologist of any standing stated that the vocal cords are made up of yellow elastic tissue and that they form a very substantial portion of the laryngeal structures. Every acoustician agrees that a vibrator to produce tone must have great elasticity and that the only substance in the human structure which has this characteristic is the yellow elastic tissue. They also state that muscular tissue has not this essential characteristic and therefore cannot act as a vibrator in tone production. Every statement made by Mr. Feuchtinger was as directly contrary to the real facts as the above. For example, he stated that a cavity could not reinforce a tone, that the false cords could not be approximated, that all the bodily tissues acted as sounding boards, etc., which are all contrary to the real facts. Prof. Hallock, in speaking of these fundamental facts, often stated, "If we do not know these things we do not know anything, and if we act in a way which is contrary to them we are sure to get into trouble." If John Howard and Mr. Feuchtinger are right, then all of our great anatomists, physiologists, and physicists are wrong, and all the real knowledge in the world is to be found in John Howard and his followers. The personal experience of the writer and his observation of hundreds of other similar cases prove the truth of Prof. Hallock's statements and the untruth of John Howard and Mr. Feuchtinger.

# EDITORIAL

## THE THIRD ANNUAL CONVENTION

**T**HE Third Annual Convention held in Chicago in late December seems to have settled the last few remaining doubts as to whether or not the teachers of speech in this country could maintain a national association capable of attracting and holding the support of a really national group. This was a critical year. Demands of war service of various kinds, increased cost of living, special war demands on income, expense and difficulty of traveling at that particular time of year, and, perhaps, the fact that our meetings did not coincide with those of the English Council, all combined to limit our attendance. But in spite of all this, we had the largest crowd which has yet attended a professional educational meeting in this field.

We regret that the formal report of the Secretary can not be available for publication in this issue of *THE QUARTERLY*. That being the case, it may not be amiss to anticipate that report by a brief editorial mention of some of its items.

Well over a hundred teachers were present at the meetings of the convention, and it was truly a national crowd. Teachers came from Massachusetts and California, and from Texas and the Dakotas—and from most of the states in between. There were more teachers interested in high school and grade school work than have ever before attended. There were, also, more normal school teachers, and about the same number of college and university teachers as have attended in other years.

In addition to certain actions in regard to changes in names, which are alluded to in another editorial, arrangement was made that *THE QUARTERLY* should change its publication months to January, March, May, and October. This number carries some manuscripts of papers read in the convention, and other manuscripts are held for later publication.

All actions taken in regard to *THE QUARTERLY* seem to make the future look very much brighter than it has looked at the close of any previous convention.

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#### THE NEXT CONVENTION

**I**T WAS voted at the recent convention that the time and place of our next meeting be referred to the Executive Committee with power to act. Before calling upon the Committee for action, President Woodward wishes to obtain the largest possible expression of the opinion of the members of the Association. Both those who had the experience of attending this convention at this particular time and place, and those who for some reason could not attend, are asked to send in opinions as to the most desirable time and place for the next national meeting.

Since the announcement of the committee's decision should be published not later than May, it is important that you send in your wishes and advice without delay. If this is done at once, some ideas will be saved that may otherwise be forgotten.

In regard to the place, the following cities have all been suggested, and a number of them rather warmly urged upon some members of the Committee: Chicago, St. Louis, New York, Cleveland, and Boston. In addition to matters of time and place, President Woodward wishes expressions of opinion in regard to program subjects, the advisability of sectional meetings, and any concrete suggestions in regard to the conduct of the convention which may come out of recent experiences. Please send all suggestions as soon as possible to Professor H. S. Woodward, Western Reserve University, Cleveland, Ohio.

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#### CHANGES IN NAMES

**T**HE *QUARTERLY* carries as main article number one in this issue an article which led to a number of important actions being taken at the recent convention. The powder seemed, indeed, very ready for this particular match. Many teachers have been giving considerable thought of late years to the inconveniences, and sometimes the indignities, suffered because we have been going about our academic business handicapped by a variety of inaccurate and misleading labels. The functions and aims

of both our National Association and our professional periodical have been misunderstood and misinterpreted in certain quarters because of the inferences some people have drawn from the use of the term "Public Speaking." There has been evidence in many places in the last five years that our professional label has been very far from satisfactory. Immediately following the reading of Professor Ryan's paper it was voted, almost unanimously, that it was the sense of the Association that our departments should be called departments of speech. It was later voted unanimously that the matter of change in the name of the Association and THE QUARTERLY should be referred to the new Executive Committee, with power to act. At a meeting of the Executive Committee held on Saturday afternoon five people were present, two of whom had voted against the first resolution in the morning in regard to department names. After canvassing the whole situation, however, it was unanimously voted by the Executive Committee that the name of the Association should henceforth be "The National Association of the Teachers of Speech," and that the name of THE QUARTERLY should be THE QUARTERLY JOURNAL OF SPEECH EDUCATION.

It is not necessary here to review the arguments in favor of speech as our professional label, which Professor Ryan has already presented; or to suggest other definite or practical reasons which will occur to many readers as arising out of the circumstances of each teacher's local situation. But THE QUARTERLY takes this occasion to congratulate the profession as a whole on this movement to bring into general use a professional title which will cover all of the field, and not only a fraction of it, a title which covers such a large and vital field that there is in its very use a challenge which must have a salutary effect upon the profession as a whole, and a title the adoption of which we feel very sure will go further than any other single thing which we could do to remove the grounds for much unpleasant misunderstanding from which teachers in this field sometimes suffer at the hands of colleagues in better labeled departments.

## ANNOUNCEMENT TO CONTRIBUTORS

**F**OR the first time in its history *THE QUARTERLY* goes to press with a full issue, and leaves on the editor's desk a pile of accepted "copy" almost large enough to fill another issue. In addition to this we have a number of excellent articles promised for the near future. We therefore feel it safe to make the following announcement to contributors to *THE QUARTERLY*.

The copy for each number will be closed on the first day of each publication month, January, March, May, and October. Any item to be considered for publication for any month should reach the editor not later than the last day of the preceding month—the further in advance of this date the better. Articles are not usually accepted for definite months. Regardless of the amount of material already accepted there will always be a chance of immediate publication for any article that seems for any reason to be entitled to the right of way.

# THE FORUM

## DELIVERY IN DEBATE

**W**E HAVE inherited wrong ideas about argumentative delivery. These wrong ideas are allowed to grow. Instructors in debate should be more severe in correcting these faults.

Ninety per cent of college debaters seem to have not the slightest knowledge of effective presentation. Their speaking is so "preponderantly boisterous and conclusive, so disfigured by volcanic fervor, for which the matter ejected affords no adequate excuse" that our sensibilities are paralyzed and rendered incapable of absorbing the evidence they produce. They seem to be competing with a hurdy-gurdy outfit. This constant hammering, this over-contentious spirit, "tho it make the unskilled laugh cannot help but make the judicious grieve." To encourage this forced, rapid-fire, tense, and nervous delivery is wrong. So true is the statement that it may not challenge attention, but I am criticizing methods, not opinions; practice and not theory.

Delivery is an important factor in the art of persuasion and conviction. It is of more value than our methods of coaching seem to indicate. Logic and evidence are but rough stones in the structure of oral argument. In presentation these stones are given smoothness and polish. I do not mean that delivery is the dominant factor in persuasion, yet we must not minimize its value. The ultimate test of every speech is its effect upon the hearers of to-day. Mr. Balfour in his eulogy of Gladstone said: "The test of a speaker is the audience he addressed. There is no other judge: from that court there is no appeal." Debaters are urging the acceptance of ideas. They are salesmen. The test is, Do they sell the goods? Lord Morley is reported to have said: "Three things matter in a speech—who says it, how he says it, and what he says, and of the three the last matters the least."

There is more truth in this statement than its cynicism seems to indicate. Other factors equal, speech substance and speech construction are the essence of effectiveness, but many well constructed speeches fail because of delivery. This factor is important.

I inveigh against the prevalent style of debate for several reasons. First, average debating is not good public speaking. Most modern authorities will accept as the definition of public speaking, "enlarged and dignified conversation." The virtues of good address are clearness, directness, and force. But what coach can have these principles in mind and allow his team to pound furiously for thirty minutes without pause or variety. Confused thinking only can result. How many debaters can look calmly at their audience and say implicitly, "I am talking to you and you and you. I want this idea to get under your skin?" No! There is a torrent of speech accompanied by violent shakings of the head, a flood of facts and quotations, a fifteen minute speech in ten and a "Thank you." Now the first end of all speech is to make itself clear. Lincoln accused Douglas of being like a cuttle fish, a fish that throws out a dark substance into the water to hide its exact position. Again, he said Judge Douglas reminded him of the little Frenchman he knew in the northwest whose legs were so short that when he walked through the snow the seat of his trousers rubbed out his footprints. These analogies characterize the average college debater. His speeches also lack force. Things are great or small only by comparison. Ideas are made important by contrast. The speech that strikes a constant key, that plunges along in the same channel, oratorical and extreme, lacks the first degree of force. Yes, average debating is not good public speaking. There is nothing of the human quality, no conversational style, no sincere personality. Should we not pay more attention to debate delivery?

Secondly, to allow this style of speaking is to lose the ideal of training a student to think on his feet. To roll forth automatically a mass of highly concentrated data, to grind along monotonously for ten minutes like a hand organ, to recite parrot fashion as most debaters do, is not thinking on one's feet. The chief concern of our profession—physical and psychical correlation—is totally obscured.

Last of all, we must face the evident lack of public interest in debating and overcome it. I again blame poor delivery. An instructor, asked recently to judge some class tryouts, said: "Yes, but I hate debates, they are bores." He served, and for two hours bravely endured the agony of senseless jargon that rattled upon us mercilessly as hailstones. I sympathized with him. Each of the twenty speakers except one labored under the delusion that because this was a debate tryout he must rant and yell and glare; that a high sustained key and lightning rapidity was a proof of excellent skill and training. Shades of Caesar! If they could learn to talk, just talk.

I plead, therefore, for more common sense in debate delivery, more of the "just human" quality, more of conversational style. I know that we are more intense and excited in a conversation over Roosevelt than over Longfellow, that barber shop conversation contains more dynamite than after dinner talk—in short, that genuine argument is the expression of deep feeling and strong conviction, but let us practice more moderation. What debater expresses correctly irony or sarcasm? How often do we hear an anecdote delivered effectively? It is easy for the fever of discussion to blind discretion. I shall never forget the student in an intercollegiate debate who rushed frantically to the front of the stage, glared savagely at his opponents, and with upraised fist, roared: "At last we have tracked the dreaded animal to his lair, and instead of finding the roarings of a terrible lion, 'tis nothing but the gentle snoring of a peaceful fox terrier."

You may think my criticism exaggerated, but I appeal to your own experience. So firmly established have the above ideas become, that the average student will read you his speech in your private office as if reading to five thousand people in the open air. All sense of proportion is distorted. Let us revert to the basic definition of effective public speaking. Let us put our work more on the plane of intelligent public discussion. Let speech training become thought training. Let us relearn the principles of clearness, directness, and force. Let us give more attention to debate delivery.

CHAS. F. LINDSLEY.

University of Minnesota.

## VOCAL ENGLISH IN OUR PUBLIC SCHOOLS

THE following is a summary of an address recently given before "The Hartford Public School Teachers Club" by Professor J. W. Wetzel of Yale University.

That the art of reading and speaking is given too little attention in our public schools is generally acknowledged by our educators. Just how to supply the needed instruction without introducing that which is artificial and mechanical has been and is a most difficult problem. Sensible fathers and mothers are not anxious to have their children acquire habits of speech and action which will forever stamp them as affected, superficial, and unnatural. Modern educators are not interested in that kind of education which trains the child to imitate inflections and modulations and emphasis which are the results of mechanical processes.

The demand, however, for more effective speaking and a better use of the voice is increasing. In a country like ours speaking in public and in conversation is yet one of the most effective means of creating public opinion. Unlike any of the other arts, speaking is necessary under all conditions. It is the attitude of mind and heart back of words, as revealed by the voice, that often makes them most effective. It is this attitude which is frequently affected seriously by mechanical limitations. The kind of reading and speaking that is artistic and effective is that which is free from any kind of affectation, either of voice or action. A pompous declamatory style of speech, the mechanical effects of superfluous gesture are no longer tolerated.

If we are to make any distinct improvement upon our present inarticulate, slovenly speech and unpleasant vocalization, the art of reading and speaking must be made a more important part of the training of the public school. This means that the teachers in every grade should be teachers of reading, speaking, and vocal culture, by example and by discriminating instruction. Whether intentionally or not, they are teaching the boys and girls who come under their instruction habits of speech and voice which will remain throughout their lives.

Mr. Hamilton Mabie says "It has only begun to dawn on many Americans that vocal education is as necessary as brain education. The quality of the voice, the tone, pitch, enunciation are matters for the home first, for the school next, and for the individual all the time." Next to the student himself the individual is the public school teacher.

The teacher who speaks continuously in a high pitched voice, thus throwing the tone waves harshly against the pharynx irritates certain nerve centers, lying at the base of the brain, in such a way as to cause severe headache and often nervous exhaustion. One who speaks in this way not only loses control over himself but also over his students. The atmosphere of the class room is one of excitement from the beginning to the end of the session. The children, as well as the teacher, become nervously fatigued. They go home nervous and excited, speaking rapidly and in a high pitched voice which irritates the entire household. There is nothing vocally more tiresome and nerve racking than a high pitched speaking voice. Pure tones,

a melodious voice, used in the conversational range with natural intonations and modulations are among the most desirable possessions, and they may be acquired by all. They should certainly be a part of every teacher's equipment.

Not only should teachers be required to speak in a well modulated voice but also distinctly, accurately and expressively. To speak distinctly and accurately they must articulate vowels and consonants correctly giving due weight and value to each. They must not say *cläss* nor *class* for *cläss*; *dööty* nor *deuty* for *düty*, etc. Also the phonetic values of final consonants must be given clearly.

After the muscles which control vocalization have been properly trained, speaking expressively and naturally should be not a mechanical but a psychological process. Thinking idea after idea accurately and definitely should produce correct and natural emphasis. Thinking logically and discriminatingly should cause proper and natural inflection. Thinking with proper feeling and emotion should produce a quality of voice in harmony with the sentiment uttered. The teacher who is not familiar with these processes and who does not exemplify them in his own reading and speaking has failed to acquire that which is fundamental in teaching others.

Upon the public school teacher, more than upon any other, rests the responsibility of improving our conversational as well as our public speaking. The professional elocutionist, if he understands his business, is usually compelled to spend most of his time in instructing and drilling the student upon such essentials as should have been acquired during his grade and high school training by constantly hearing English distinctly and effectively spoken. Bad habits of speech and of vocalization acquired during these years can hardly be overcome. Certainly if left to the efforts of the professional teacher of elocution alone comparatively slow progress will be made.

Congressman Littlefield, who was greatly interested in effective speaking once said to me—"If our high schools and colleges all over the country would spend half the time they spend in cramming stuff into students' heads in teaching them how to get it out again intelligently, they would send out stronger and more effective men." Students are allowed to complete their high school courses without having any instruction in the education of the voice through which is revealed largely their personality, their culture, and their attitude of mind and heart. They complete courses in English before they acquire the ability to pronounce the words of that language intelligibly or to interpret its literature intelligently.

Correct and distinct articulation, proper use of the speaking voice, expressive vocalization in speaking and reading, ought to be taught by example as well as by discriminating instruction, from the kindergarten to the high school. We would then have a better and more effective speaking of English both in private and in public.

# REPORT OF THE BUSINESS MANAGER OF THE QUARTERLY JOURNAL

SUMMARY OF ACCOUNTS RENDERED BY THE  
BANTA PUBLISHING CO.

*Receipts and Disbursements, December 15, 1916, to December 22, 1917*

## RECEIPTS

Membership dues .....	\$352.00
Membership registration fees .....	10.00
Membership dues, 87½% of collections made by Business Manager .....	31.50
Subscriptions .....	412.63
Subscriptions collected by Business Manager .....	15.90
Advertising .....	126.32

\$948.35

## DISBURSEMENTS

QUARTERLY JOURNAL, Vol. III, 1917 .....	\$827.65
QUARTERLY JOURNAL, postage .....	16.74
Expenses of Editor .....	50.00
Treasurer, 12½% of membership dues .....	44.00
Treasurer, registration fees .....	10.00
Miscellaneous .....	90.08

948.35

## DEFICIT

90.12

\$1,038.47    \$1,038.47

THE Banta Publishing Co. adds this statement. "This report represents merely receipts and does not take account of the October expirations and advertising, not paid to date. Our books show over \$400.00 owing on these accounts."

The results of the past year are not gratifying. Every item—dues, subscriptions, and advertising—shows a shrinkage as compared with 1916. This, as well as a considerable part of the tardiness in issuing THE QUARTERLY JOURNAL the past year, has been due to the Banta Company's inability to give the work full, prompt, and able attention.

Realizing that the Banta Company labored under unusual difficulties most of the year and holding that the Association is entitled to and must expect adjustments that will secure more adequate and efficient service the coming year, I directed the publishers to furnish me a statement covering the conditions of the past year and their policy for 1918. Mr. Banta himself, under date of December 24, addressed the Association as follows:

"In accordance with the request of your treasurer, we are writing to present to you a statement of the policy that will guide our firm in future work on THE QUARTERLY JOURNAL OF SPEECH EDUCATION. We include also a brief account of the circumstances attending publication of the magazine during the year 1917. \* \* \*

"The Banta Publishing Company has during the past year spent in the neighborhood of \$120,000 for new buildings and equipment. Contractors' delays prevented our completing the process of expansion until late this fall, although guarantees had been given that the work would be finished in July. Shortage of labor and non-delivery of materials were causes contributing to this delay, causes that may be referred back to the military situation which seems to have been quite general in its effect on all industries.

"We are publishers of a large number of important military textbooks. This branch of our business before the war was a small thing; editions of from 1,000 to 5,000 copies were sufficiently large to meet all demands. With the entry of the United States into the war, this business suddenly blazed up so that we were called upon to increase production several hundred per cent; editions of 50,000 to 75,000 were exhausted as rapidly as run from the press. Most of the orders came to us through the Quartermaster General's offices and the departments at Washington. These government orders, of course, exercised a pressure stronger than any others. Although we had anticipated the war early in the year, and had prepared as best we could for the abnormal conditions that were certain to result, we were badly disorganized for a time. As a consequence THE QUARTERLY was several times seriously delayed. Now that the new plant has been occupied and all re-adjustments made, further delays will not occur.

"In addition we have been able to turn the advertising and subscription work over to our Book Department, something that would have been entirely impractical up to now. We propose to circularize libraries, and to make use of the names and addresses of teachers of Oral English that have been collected in several states. All this work will be performed by people who have nothing else to occupy their attention and therefore can accomplish it most efficiently.

"We are not stating that the magazine has been made the most of during the year 1917, in fact, the report does not satisfy us at all.

We had expected better things. Still, as pointed out above, the past twelve months have been very trying in every way and we are glad to have come through as well as we did. Prospects for the coming year are exceedingly bright, and we look forward with great optimism to making *THE QUARTERLY* the entire success that it ought to be."

Experience shows clearly that materially enlarged membership and increased income are within reach if this program is carried out. But the Association must also realize that the surest and most effective way to get new members is by the personal appeal of present members to teachers of their acquaintance who are not members. Can not the whole Association constitute itself a Get-a-member Club. Every year there are a very few who get more than one. Let us average at least one each this year. The Business Manager and the Secretary (who is Chairman of the Membership Committee) will gladly co-operate in every way with those who want to introduce the Association to their friends. The new Business Manager will gladly have sample copies of *THE QUARTERLY* sent to prospective members whose names you send him. A printed folder setting forth the case of *THE QUARTERLY* and the Association has recently been prepared and a supply can be secured from Professor Thurber or Professor Sarett or the Banta Company.

It seems wise to call attention again to the fact that there is a distinction between members and subscribers. Subscribers pay \$2.00 a year for *THE QUARTERLY*, and there their connection with the publication and the organization ceases. Members also pay \$2.00 a year. This is the annual dues of the Association, \$1.75 of which goes to the maintenance of *THE QUARTERLY* and 25c to other Association work. Furthermore, every member has a voice in Association affairs and lends his influence to this organized effort by affiliation with it. Self-interest and the interest of the Association should in all cases make teachers members rather than subscribers.

H. S. WOODWARD, *Business Manager.*

## STATEMENT OF THE TREASURER

## RECEIPTS AND DISBURSEMENTS

November 22, 1916, to December 27, 1917

Balance on hand, November 22, 1916 .....	\$35.73
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## RECEIPTS

Banquet committee of New York convention .....	\$24.00
Accounts receivable, November 22, 1916 .....	200.01
Membership fees .....	145.00
Subscriptions .....	110.45
Membership fees, 12 1/4% of collections made by Banta Co. . .	44.00
Registration fees collected by Banta Co. ....	10.00
	<hr/>
	533.46
	<hr/>
	569.19

## DISBURSEMENTS

Association payable November 22, 1916

QUARTERLY JOURNAL .....	\$214.17
Printing .....	46.50
President, postage, printing, etc. ....	90.40
Clinical Film Co., N. Y. ....	25.00
Miscellaneous .....	12.79
	<hr/>
	\$388.86
New York convention banquet .....	35.00
President Lardner	
Printing .....	\$7.50
Duplicating .....	22.35
Postage .....	12.15
	<hr/>
	42.00
Treasurer and Business Manager	
Stenographer .....	14.49
Postage .....	11.17
Supplies .....	3.83
	<hr/>
	29.49
Banta Publishing Co., dues and subscriptions .....	47.40
Miscellaneous .....	14.14
	<hr/>
	556.89
	<hr/>
	\$12.30

CASH ON HAND DEC. 27, 1917

FINANCIAL STANDING, December 27, 1917.

## Assets

Cash on hand .....	\$12.30
Accounts receivable, membership fees .....	29.80
Accounts receivable, subscriptions .....	44.74
Accounts receivable, advertising .....	5.60
	<hr/>
	\$92.44

## Liabilities

None .....	\$0.00
	<hr/>
	0.00
	<hr/>
CREDIT BALANCE	\$92.44

There is an indication of the progress of the Association in a comparison of these figures with those of the first two years. On December 1, 1915, there was a debit balance of \$508.69. On December 1, 1916, there was a debit balance of \$90.87.

There are still carried on the books as a contingent liability the loans made by members in 1915 and 1916 totalling \$479.02.

H. S. WOODWARD, *Treasurer*.

President Woodward announces the appointment for 1918 of the following committees:

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 Vice-President, Maude May Babcock, University of Utah.  
 Vice-President, Clara B. Williams, Smith College.  
 Vice-President, E. D. Shurter, University of Texas.  
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 S. H. Conrad, Pittsburgh.  
 Mrs. M. B. Dowd, Manchester High School, N. H.

W. E. Peck, New Rochelle High School, N. Y.  
 Anna L. Stevick, San Rafael High School, Cal.  
 B. F. Tanner, Fergus County High School, Mont.  
 A. T. Weaver, Whitewater State Normal School, Wis.  
*First Year Courses in College and University*  
 Charles M. Newcomb, Ohio Wesleyan University.  
 Margaret Ball, Mt. Holyoke College.  
 F. E. Brown, South Dakota State College.  
 S. S. Davis, University of Nebraska.  
 R. D. T. Hollister, University of Michigan.  
 H. G. Houghton, University of Wisconsin.  
 Mrs. P. S. Kingsley, University of Denver.  
 W. C. Shaw, Dartmouth College.  
 Mary Yost, Vassar College.

#### War

Glenn N. Merry, Chairman, State University of Iowa.  
 L. E. Bassett, Leland Stanford Jr. University.  
 C. D. Hardy, Northwestern University.  
 J. M. O'Neill, University of Wisconsin.  
 E. D. Shurter, University of Texas.  
 B. C. VanWye, University of Cincinnati.  
 J. A. Winans, Cornell University.  
 H. S. Woodward, Western Reserve University.

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#### GOOD NEWS

**T**HE High School teachers of Fergus County, Montana, have recently voted that none of the debaters in that county shall be allowed to commit to memory the speeches used in their debates; and they have further voted that each debate shall be judged by a single expert judge.

## PERIODICALS

*FOR THE DIRECTOR OF DRAMATICS.* BY ALEC N. DRUMMOND. *The English Journal*, December, 1917, page 658.

In this article Professor Drummond of the Department of Public Speaking, Cornell University. Faculty director of the University Dramatic Club, offers a most complete list of books that will be helpful to teachers responsible for school dramatics. The article has all of the advantages of a formal bibliography on play production with the additional advantages of the author's advice and suggestions by the way.

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*SIDETRACKING OF STUTTERERS BY "STARTERS."*  
BY SWIFT, WALTER B., A.B., S.B., M.D., Harvard Graduate School of Medicine, and Miss JENNIE HEDRICK, Washington, D. C. *The Journal of Applied Psychology*, Vol. I, March, 1917.

This article may be summarized briefly as follows:

A "starter" consists in any invented motion or action invented by the patient to help his speech action. From analyses these are shown to be movements of head, arms, body, face. To the variety of 41 in 45 cases out of 123 cases examined, they are merely instant helps. They are no cure. They are usually different in different patients. They are usually the same in the same patient. Their momentary efficiency consists merely in a diversion of the attention. Their failure to cure consists in the lack of any profound development of visualization processes or permanent suggestive effect.

## NEW BOOKS

*Argumentation and Debating*, Revised Edition. BY WILLIAM TRUFANT FOSTER. Boston, Houghton Mifflin Company, 1917: Cloth pp. IX + 468. \$1.40.

The snows of yesterday are hardly more undiscoverable than the interest and the pointedness of argumentative illustrations and examples that are out of date. Various writers of textbooks, now that nearly a decade has elapsed since such works became numerous, have recognized this and have produced revised editions. And no revised edition, probably, will be examined so widely and so eagerly as this of President Foster's. The reviewer consequently feels justified in recording a rather extraordinary number of descriptive and critical comments.

The admirers of the first edition should promptly be assured that the work is not greatly altered, is essentially the same. Examples and illustrations are changed most of all: there is little about high school societies, less about the tariff, less about the Congo Free State, in the new edition; there is in it not a little about intercollegiate athletics, about war and peace. The other changes, made, according to the Preface, after consultation with over one hundred college teachers, are nevertheless numerous and significant.

Among the minor changes are the dimensions of the print page, the more frequent paragraphing, and the freer use of Italics and of Roman type. The Exercises for a given chapter are now located immediately after the chapter. The chapter on Brief construction now comes immediately after that on Analysis. The chapter on Brief and Argument, consisting as it did merely of a Brief and the corresponding argument in parallel columns, has been transferred, quite properly, to the Appendix. This last change makes one wonder if President Foster considered sufficiently the other alternative, that of developing his ideas on writing out the argument into a chapter which would have been definitely suggestive and

helpful to the student—who at that period of his progress is almost invariably weary and forespent.

Among the more important modifications is the lessening of the number of "Tests" for the various kinds of arguments and of fallacies. This change is very welcome, for it not only simplifies the different series of tests but also lessens somewhat the general effect of formulism and leaves greater play for common sense. Various passages quite new to the work are welcome for the same reason. Such are: the emphasis upon thinking as distinct from mere compiling (p. 98); the treatise upon the value and the dangers of syllogistic reasoning (pp. 133-4); and the recognition that subdivisions may exist in genuinely coördinate relations—an additional Rule for Brief-making (p. 71). A brief but satisfactory reference to the "real life" discussions of the past few years occurs on page 307. And, most extensive of all the additions to the text, there is an admirable discussion of the use and abuse of Statistics (pp. 216-220).

Certain aspects of argumentation teaching which were open to surmise and theorizing when *Argumentation and Debating* first appeared, have since become quite clearly defined. In several of its features the Revised Edition reflects President Foster's preoccupation with new duties and his failure to appreciate time's clarifying effect. Two doctrines boldly and impressively pronounced nine years ago, experience has proved virtually untenable. One is the doctrine that great improvement will be wrought in Debating by an exchange of Briefs; the other that extreme care must be taken to avoid having a student speak against his convictions. Of these the latter has been most effectively discussed in print; but neither is today a live issue in the realm of argumentation. The prominence given to them in the Revised Edition is unwarranted.

Subject to almost the same criticism is President Foster's confident retention of the Conviction-Persuasion categories. To be sure, Professor Woolbert's masterful exposition\* of the fallacy involved here had not appeared when *Argumentation and Debating* went to press. But surely after all these years of gradual readjustment this traditional distinction might have been presented somewhat less dogmatically—granting something to the consciousness of imperfection which surely has dominated most teachers and stu-

\* "Conviction and Persuasion: Some Considerations of Theory," by Charles H. Woolbert. *QUARTERLY JOURNAL OF PUBLIC SPEAKING*, July, 1917, pp. 249 ff.

dents in dealing with it. It may be that various unsatisfactory qualifications and circumlocutions will reign in this field for a time; but seldom again, the reviewer believes, will a textbook reviser include his old chapter on Persuasion except under the lash of despair.

The same might almost be said of the retained chapter on Principles and Qualities of Style. This chapter is for one who has had no previous training in general composition so unintelligible and so unimpressive, and for one who has had that training so superfluous, that the book would be better for its complete excision. The chapter is not pointed enough in its application to the peculiar and specific problems presented by argumentative composition. It is difficult to distinguish and to analyze those problems, of course. The retention of the original chapter is natural. But it is likewise unfortunate.

Two other highly important weaknesses in the original work have not been eliminated. One is the constant emphasis upon Debating. The words *debate*, *debating*, *debater* occur in every chapter of the work; the illustrations emphasize debating as the normal if not the principal form of argumentation. The book would be quite accurately named, as would many another textbook of argumentation, if it were headed *How to Debate*.

This emphasis is misleading. It is harmful alike to the study of argumentation and to the pursuit of debating. Not all the brief remarks to the contrary, not all the new material of an argumentative but not a debating character, such as the excellent editorials grouped in the Appendix, can offset the insistent connotation of the text that argumentation and debating are interchangeable terms. Especially to the undergraduate mind, which regards debating after all primarily as an extra-curricular activity and not primarily as an academic study, this recurring implication that argumentation is but the handmaid of debating, degrades the textbook to the level of a recruiting sergeant. We seem still to lack an argumentation textbook by one who while recognizing the importance of debating is not obsessed by it.

The very theoretical completeness of President Foster's book seems to me to constitute its other weakness. We read here and there in the text that argumentation is not after all a matter of rules, that freedom and spontaneity must be retained, that listing and testing and even Briefing are but means to an end. But the

book as a whole belies these passages. It is so well rounded, the tests and the rules are so clearly printed, the illustrations conform so beautifully to these rules, the Briefs are so conspicuous and the graceful finished products so difficult to find and to appreciate, that the student is led to think of argumentation as a system, complete, formal, mechanical indeed, almost automatic. Rigidity, formality, Procrustean uniformity and consequent deformity are so difficult to avoid when this book is used that except in the hands of extraordinary teachers and extraordinary students it becomes, in the long run, almost dangerous.

We need, experience shows, to beware of composition, of argumentation, when it is reduced either definitely or approximately to the simplicity and the accuracy of a natural science. It will turn out to be not English but a complex form of mathematics; not practical but ingenious and curious. Let us have more *if's* and *however's* in our textbooks, if necessary, but surely fewer *thus* and *so's*.

These criticisms should not be interpreted as stating that President Foster's book is exhaustive in its treatment. It occupies a valuable middle ground in this respect—between, let us say, Stone and Garrison on the one hand and O'Neil, Laycock, and Scales on the other. Nor should the criticisms obscure those signal merits of the original and the revised works alike: First, the avoidance of all that in seeking to be suggestive is merely vague, of what being ostensibly flesh turns out to be padding. This book is solid throughout. Second, the constant upholding of a high aim, a high moral position, sensibly but not sentimentally maintained. There is not a rule nor a precept in the book which does not inculcate right "training for citizenship." Third, and perhaps but a phase of the preceding, the recognition throughout the book that debate (including argumentation) "should be an honest effort to discover truth and to convince others of that truth" (p. 294). This recognition is fundamental. A book so scholarly and so up to date as President Foster's, built upon that recognition, will have numerous and enthusiastic users.

W. H. D.

*Winning Orations*, in Intercollegiate Contests in South Dakota. COMPILED BY O. W. COURSEY, Mitchell, S. D.; The Educator Supply Company, 1917. Cloth, pp. 263.

This volume contains the winning orations in South Dakota contests during the years 1888 to 1916 inclusive. It is truly an interesting volume. It ought to be elaborately "researched." Examples of about every possible quality, good and bad, that speech composition can have, are to be found in it in liberal numbers. Some of the speeches are very good, and some are very bad (and when they are bad, they are horrid!) On the whole I am inclined to think that the bad outweighs the good. Reading this volume ought to give any teacher of oratory or speech composition much food for serious thought. For instance: Was the net result of all the contests in which these selections won, good or evil? Would a similar compilation for the same period in other states show about equal quality, or be better or worse? Would a similar number of winning orations gathered from the whole United States for the year 1917, average any higher? Can we perfect a system that will produce and reward only the good, and ban and punish all of the bad? Would it be well to abolish all intercollegiate oratorical contests? These questions and more spring easily out of this little light blue volume from South Dakota, but the answers to them cannot be found in it.

J. M. O'N.

*American Ideals*. EDITED BY NORMAN FOERSTER AND W. W. PIERSON, JR., Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1917. Cloth, pp. 326. \$1.25.

"American Ideals" is a volume in which teachers of public speaking will be able to find both material and models for classes in speech composition, as well as worth while and timely selections for practice in declamation. No teacher interested in thoughtfully chosen collections of high grade material should fail to examine this book.

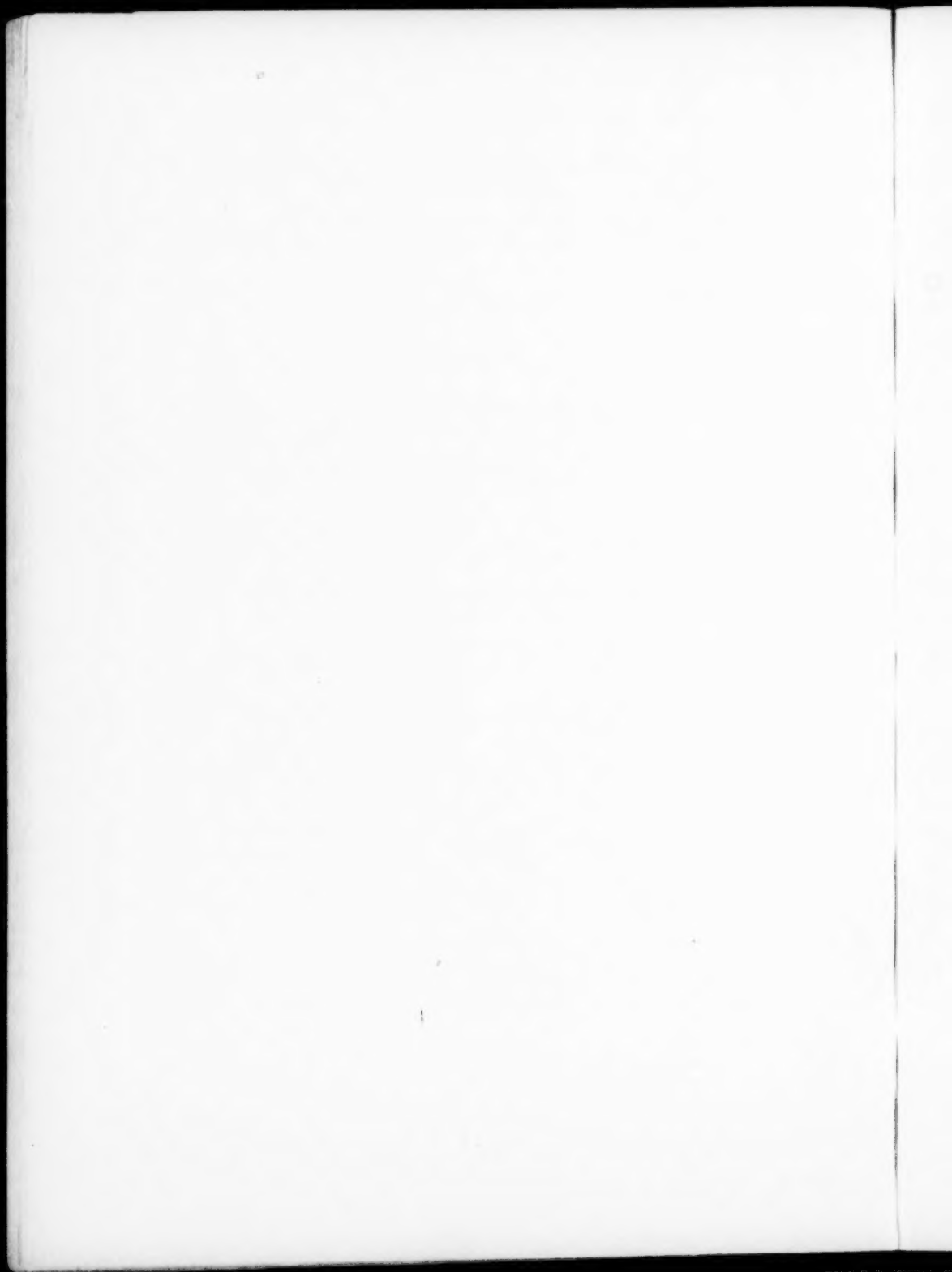
J. M. O'N.

*University Debaters Annual*. EDITED BY EDITH M. PHELPS. New York: The H. W. Wilson Company, 1917. Cloth pp. 270. \$1.80.

This is volume III of a series of yearly publications. Six chapters are included, each containing briefs, manuscripts, and bibliog-

raphies. One chapter is a stenographic report of an actual debate, and the other five are made up of the affirmative and negative speeches of single institutions—the affirmative half of one debate matched with the negative half of a different debate. These five chapters are of course only the "paper bases" of the debates, not reports of what was actually said on the platform. On account of this manner of making it up, this book is necessarily quite unsatisfactory as a record of intercollegiate debating, but the material presented in the various chapters ought to be helpful to people interested in the subjects dealt with.

J. M. O'N.



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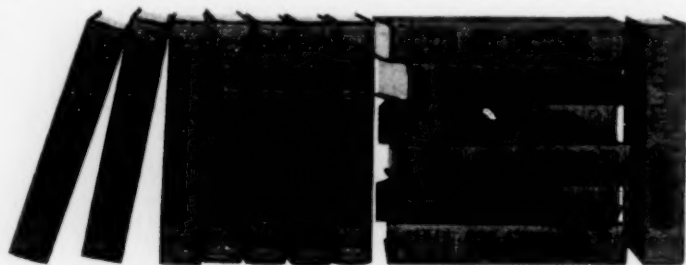
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